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KOREA

ITS HISTORY, ITS PEOPLE, AND ITS
COMMERCE

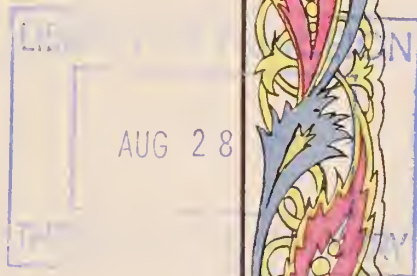
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INTRODUCTION

CHOSUN, or "The Land of the Morning Calm," was, at the time of which I write, a kingdom on the extreme east of Asia, consisting of a large peninsula opposite Japan and of two lobes, a shorter one to the south-east, the other a long slice of the Asiatic seaboard north, resembling the peninsula reversed. In shape the country so counterparted a butterfly in flight as to impress its people's imagination to frequent allusion to the fact in poetry and prose. It was my fortune to visit this land once and to dwell there for a winter as the guest of the Government at a time when to do so savoured of romance. For nothing then could have been more out of the world, more like a fairy tale come true, than this secluded, cut off corner of it. In character certainly it suggested anything but a butterfly, nor had Japan then thought of capturing the country for its own collection. Dormant it had been for centuries; sleeping oblivious of the world without, in the long lethargic trance of the chrysalis.

Of this its chrysalis state, gone now never to return, I am about to speak by way of preface to this volume written by others and treating of the Korea of to-day.

For a man to outlive a nation, to be able to look back upon a portion of his own existence passed amid a setting which has since crumbled away, gives him a sense of unreality and persuades him of being preternaturally old. What once he knew so well seems alien to its own

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successor, and he stands convicted of intrusion now where he lived invited years ago. Yet as the boy is father to the man, so may a glimpse, albeit resurrected, of what Korea was twenty-seven years since serve fittingly for frontispiece in local colour to a story others are to tell.

It was a grey December morning in 1883 when my eyes opened upon Chemulpo, the portal to the Land of the Morning Calm. Very early morning it seemed it must be; for the people of the country whom one could make out moving about on shore looked all to be clad in their night-clothes, long white cotton garments of the usual non-committal nocturnal cut as to age, sex, or previous condition of sleepitude. The general effect was heightened by a broad-brimmed, high-crowned, horsehair hat. The hat turned out to be the badge of manhood; but even prolonged acquaintance proved no easy preface for distinguishing boys from girls.

To mark this panorama from the steamer's deck was to have the curtain go up upon a bit of unreal life; to go ashore subsequently like joining the exotic actors' company in the out-of-keeping modern traveller part. Miles of mud-flats — for the tide was out — glistened for foot-lights to this taking to the stage. Perhaps nothing can point the transition from one character to the other better than by saying that the Japanese Consul had us to dinner that evening, my Japanese secretary¹ and I, in order that both he and we might get a glimpse of home. Indeed throughout my sojourn in the country I was always addressed, when possible, in Japanese as being in native eyes my stepmother tongue.

Of the palanquin ride that followed, from the coast to the capitol Seoul, I have the most acute remembrances

¹ Since the well-known diplomat Miyaoka Tsenejiro.

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— it is not easy to be borne, though one be not the bearer — as also of the hostelry, or farmhouse, where we passed the night. For the going up was an all-day journey over those twenty-six miles of unconveyanced land, a day's march which the Koreans amplified to two. Nobody of course ever walked except the happily circumstanced individuals whom poverty constrained. But when in the afternoon of the second day the Koreans unaccountably quickened their pace and on topping a rise I saw before me the long crenellated wall of an old-time city of the East with its parapets stretching in perspective into the distance, the romance of the situation asserted itself. I discovered also the reason for the unseemly haste the Koreans had so suddenly manifested, at the eleventh hour. Unless we reached the city gates before sunset, it appeared, we should be shut out. We fortunately managed this far-eastern feat, and I half expected to see a fluttering handkerchief thrust through the iron bars that shuttered the loophole windows of the houses well-nigh brushed in passing, in recognition of the fact. None waved, however; for it is only the unexpected that happens and this was too fitting a fancy to be fulfilled. Fate nevertheless could not alter the city nor prevent its denizens from stopping and staring at us as we passed, once threateningly, though she checked all serious demonstration.

After thus threading the principal thoroughfares and winding through others which would almost be dignified by the name of alleys, we halted at the inconspicuous portal of the compound designated for my reception. It well deserved the appellation of compound from the motley collection of buildings, connected and detached, it contained and the party walls and gates that both

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separated and joined them. Here the Foreign Office, imposing in its new-styled function, held its sittings.

It was a strangely secluded scholastic life I led; strolling about the city by day with a gaily uniformed escort and studying out by night the mechanism of its existence, things we take at home for granted, but which here assumed importance for being upside down. If there was little to be seen, there was much to be seen through; and if not deepening it was at least broadening to realise how little in reality is matter of course in the ways of men. It was like being born again and having to acquire a totally new alphabet of human experience. As the creature comforts were on the same level of simplicity I cannot say that it was as delightful in the doing as in reminiscence afterward. But one point about it gave it a fillip second to none — it was virgin. That meant much. For it was all an experience which can never be repeated. It was not only living at one's antipodes, but it was a going backward centuries into the past and being one's self eye-witness of what but imperfectly gets embalmed in books. An offshoot from human evolution, its civilisation was both unique and atavistic. Self-cut off practically for centuries it remained exclusive by desire. To find one's self in it was more like having voyaged to some other planet than to be still on earth. It was certainly lonely enough at times, but it was a loneliness heightened to grandeur to sit at night alone in my improvised sitting-room and hear the great bell of the city boom its sentinelling vigil across a sleeping land. Two comets I remember appeared in the heavens that winter which seemed almost companionable by contrast on this the other side of our world where day is night, and night, day.

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Nature herself was in keeping, relatively virgin and unique. Animals inhabited the country such as one would never have dared conceive. Tigers and leopards roamed the hills, cut-off cousins of their race long since retreated south, as secluded now from their kind as the people themselves. The larder, too, would have pleased an epicure. On Christmas day I dined off a great bustard, stuffed with a pheasant, itself stuffed with chestnuts. On the other hand what we deem common necessities in food: milk, cream, butter, cheese, no Korean thought of as possible. No cow was ever milked even by the poor and beef was eaten only by the rich. Oriental grains made the staple of consumption and *sesame* from a cryptic password sank into a simple article of food. One walked, as it were, amid the setting of the Arabian Nights.

Nevertheless, feasting was the great and only entertainment of the land. A banquet constituted an all-day affair. For it began on the appointed date as early as the Koreans could get to work, some time after noon, and was prolonged till the hues of sunset deepened into night. The rosy tints of the dying day were held to be poetically symbolic of the flush of wine and with oriental regard for imagery were consecrated to such occasions. Wine, woman, and song sped the day's departure, the last two professional as in like entertainments in old Japan. Then in the deepening dusk the palanquins were summoned, the bearers, with their huge paper lamps, flitting like fireflies about the courtyard. Amid a bustle which the strange coloured costumes made into a picture by itself, each retinue in turn drew out, swept through the gateway and departed homeward and to rest.

But the romance had its realistic sub-stratum, too.

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If everything seemed lazily peaceful from without, it was not so within. Intrigues and mysterious takings off were the order of the day. Internal revolutions occurred with regular irregularity and those in power on Monday by Tuesday night have their heads cut off. Since the days they feasted me almost all my Korean official friends have met violent deaths. The men I knew are no more, and now the country itself has been wiped from the map.

Even as I write, Korea has ceased to exist. It has passed under the dominion of its neighbour and become a department of the Empire of the Rising Sun. The land of the Dawn has changed into the land of the Day. Its sleeping calm has been rudely broken, not as with an ordinary awakening, but with that severing metamorphosis by which the chrysalis passes utterly and irrevocably into the butterfly — netted by Japan.

PERCIVAL LOWELL.

EDITORIAL NOTE

NO one can read this volume without seeing the Finger of Fate pointing constantly to the most recent and the most important event in the history of Korea — an event which has come about as the inevitable result of the course things had been taking in the Far East for the previous quarter of a century—its absorption into the Empire of Japan which took place in August, 1910. This step was vitally necessary for Japan if she is to work out her manifest destiny to entrench herself on the mainland.

Korea has always been called "The Hermit Country." Before the war between Russia and Japan, much of which was fought within the borders of Korea, this comparatively unknown land was seldom visited by travellers. Its geographical position made the Russo-Japanese War inevitable, for Korea extends as a peninsula from the mainland, where Russia was in fortified possession; she was so near to Japan in fact as to endanger its peace if Korea were to remain in Russian hands. As a nation Korea was altogether without means of self-defence; consequently, in order to protect this country as well as itself, Japan, with the consent of China, maintained a protectorate over Korea. The war with Russia gave Japan her opportunity to enforce this attitude of protection, and subsequent events as detailed in this volume have led logically to this great final step.

With their typical foresight the Japanese have long

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been preparing for it and the progress they have already made in re-establishing this seemingly hopeless country on a sound basis is remarkable. Japan encouraged its citizens to migrate to Korea in great numbers. Not less than forty thousand Japanese agents are said to have been at work surveying the country, settling among the people, and preparing the way before the Russo-Japanese struggle; but it is since the war that most of the work has been done.

All the chief ports are now connected with a railroad as well built, as comfortable as, and, it is said, more profitable than most American roads. Imports and exports have increased and the fisheries are being developed. A good tramway, which the natives have been taught to conduct, now runs through Seoul. Women have gained some freedom and some recognition from the law under Japanese influence, and now, with the Japanese women as examples, some of the Korean women venture forth; they no longer hesitate to appear before men not of their own families and they begin to become personalities instead of the nameless chattels — they were merely known as so and so's wife, or mother, or sister — which they used to be.

American commerce in many important branches has already obtained a firm foothold in Korea, and it would appear from the statements made by the Japanese Government that the opportunities for trade with Chosen, as Korea is in future to be called, will increase under the new regime.

Japan has made her choice; the party of peaceful but powerful expansion has prevailed and upon her wise administration of this new territory the future of the Far East will largely depend.

CHARLES WELSH.

GLIMPSES OF LIFE IN KOREA

BY ANGUS HAMILTON

KOREA

CHAPTER I

OUTLINE OF HISTORY

DESPITE the survey work which has been accomplished in the past by the Japanese upon the coasts of Korea, little knowledge of the numerous islands and archipelagoes, shoals and reefs which make its shores the terror of all mariners, exists at present. Until the voyage of the *Alceste* and *Lyra* in 1816, the locality of these detached groups of rocky islets was not marked on any of the Japanese or Chinese maps of the period. In the map of the empire prepared by the Jesuits at Peking in the seventeenth century, the space now occupied by the Korean Archipelago was covered with the drawing of an elephant — the conventional sign of the ignorance of the cartographers of that time. In the older native maps, the mainland embraced groups of islands, the most imperfect knowledge of the physical configuration of their own shores prevailing among the Koreans. In quite recent days, however, the Korean government has recognised this fact, and in the early months of 1903 the Japanese government was requested to draw up a complete survey of the Hermit Kingdom. This work

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is now in process of execution, the plan of the coast-line already having been completed.

The coast of Korea is remarkable for the number of spacious harbours which distinguish it. Upon the west and south, indications of the volcanic period, through which the country has in part passed, are shown by the frequency with which these island groups occur. From a single peak upon one of the small islands off the south-west coast, as many as one hundred and thirty-five islets may be counted, stretching to the north and to the south, the resort of the sea-fowl; desolate and almost uninhabited. Many of the more important islands have been cultivated, and give refuge and a lonely home to small communities of fishing-folk.

Navigation is peculiarly dangerous in these waters. Many of the islands are submerged by the spring-tides, and the direction of the channels, scoured by the rush of the tide, becomes quite indefinite. In the absence of charts and maps, these island-fringed shores have been the scene of many shipwrecks; Dutch, American, French, and British shipping meeting in one grim and silent procession a common end: captivity on shore or death in the sea. Some of these unfortunate mariners survived their experiences, leaving, after the fashion of Hendrik Hamel, the supercargo of the Dutch frigate *Sparwehr*, which went ashore off Quelpart in 1653, records and histories of their adventures to an incredulous posterity. Most of the islands lying off the coast are well wooded. As they are very beautiful to look

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upon and very dangerous to approach, they are regarded with mingled sentiments of reverence and superstition, differing little, in their expression, from the fear in which the ancients held the terrors of Scylla and Charybdis. Their isolated position, moreover, has made them the centre of much contra-band trade between the Chinese and Koreans; their defenceless state renders them an easy prey to any pirates who care to ravage them.

The islands off the south-west coast are the sanctuaries of many animals. Seals sport and play unharmed among the rocks; the woody peaks are rich in game: teal, crane, curlew, quail, and innumerable small birds make them their breeding-grounds. The shores are happy hunting-grounds for naturalists, and a variety of marine food is found throughout the archipelago. A number of well-marked species of sponge may be gathered, and the coral beds display many violent tints and delicate shades, forming in their beautiful colourings a sea garden of matchless splendour. The *flora* of these islands is a no less brilliant feature of the summer landscape. Tiger-lilies showy and gigantic, daisies, asters, many varieties of cactus, grow side by side with curious ferns, palms and creepers, almost tropical in their character and profusion, yet surviving the cooler temperature of autumn and winter, to greet each coming spring with freshened beauty. The air vibrates with the singing and buzzing of insects, the limpid day is bright with gaudy butterflies. Snow-white herons stand in the shallows. Cor-

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morants, diving birds and ducks throng the reefs to rise in clouds with many angry splutterings when their haunts are invaded. In the deeper waters there are myriads of fish; in passing from group to group along the coast shoals of whales are to be seen, blowing columns of spray aloft, or sleeping idly upon the surface.

The coast of Korea is well sprinkled with the names of foreign navigators, who, in previous centuries, essayed to visit the Land of the Morning Radiance. With rare exceptions, these visitors were turned back. Some were captured and tortured; many were ordered off at once, few were ever entertained. None were invited to make any stay in the new land, or permitted to inspect its wonders and curiosities. Beyond the Japanese, those who succeeded in sapping the wall of isolation which was so carefully built around the country and so rigorously maintained, were generally escorted inland as prisoners, the unconscious victims of some successful stratagem. In a manner, the fashion of their treatment is revealed in the curious names with which these pioneers of navigation have labelled the capes and promontories, the islands and shoals, which they were lucky enough to locate and whose dangers they were fortunate enough to avoid. Many of these names have ceased to be recognised. The lapse of time has caused them to be obliterated by European hydrographers from the maps and charts of the country and seas, in which their originators had risked so much. In many parts of the coast,

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however, particularly upon the west, along the shores of the Chyung-chyöng Province, these original names have been preserved. They form, to-day, a tribute to the earnestness and intrepidity of these early explorers. This meed of recognition is only just, and is not to be denied to their undoubted gallantry and enterprise.

It is not impossible to believe that an unusually fickle fate followed in their footsteps, prompting them to leave thus for the guidance of future generations, some hint of their own miscalculations. If one may judge from the brief narratives which these discoverers have left behind them, the result of their work upon these inhospitable shores surpassed anything that they had foreseen. The visit of these hardy spirits aroused the curiosity of the Koreans, giving to them their first knowledge of that outer world which they had spurned for centuries. Despite the golden opportunities now presented to them, however, they continued to neglect it. The memory of the black ships and the red beards (Dutchmen) — as they dubbed the strange craft and stranger devils, that had only to appear off their shores to be shipwrecked — dwelt long in their minds. Although they treated these strangers with comparative generosity, they were careful to preserve inviolate the secrets and sanctity of their land. They rejected with contumacy the friendly overtures of strangers who came in monster ships, and who, forsooth, left behind nothing but a name. It is scarcely astonishing, therefore, that there are

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many points upon the coast of Korea which bear somewhat uncomplimentary names. Deception Bay, Insult Island, and False River savour of certain physical and mental discomforts which, too great to be borne in silence, left an indelible impression upon the associations of the spot.

If the Dutch sailors of 1627 were among the earliest to reach the forbidding shores of this kingdom, the activities of British voyagers were most prominent in the succeeding century. The work of Captain W. R. Broughton, of the British sloop-o'-war, of sixteen guns, *Providence*, is described to this day by the bays and harbours into which he penetrated, and the capes and straits which this gallant man christened, to the credit of the distant island kingdom from which he hailed. Broughton in 1797, Maxwell of the *Alceste*, with Basil Hall, commander of the British sloop-o'-war, the *Lyra*, in 1816, deserve the passing fame which is secured to them by the waters and capes which have been named after them. Their names figure as landmarks upon the west, the east, and the south coasts. While Maxwell and Hall preferred to devote their attention to the discovery and examination of the Korean Archipelago — of which, although Broughton does not mention it, it seems impossible that the discoverer of Broughton Strait can have been ignorant — Broughton roughly charted and surveyed the west coasts, coming to a temporary halt in Broughton Bay, some six hundred miles to the north. Hall left his name in Basil's Bay, where Gutzlaff landed

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in 1832 to plant potatoes and to leave seeds and books. A generation later, in 1866, the archipelago to the north-west was named after the Prince Imperial, who was to meet his death in Zululand in 1878. In 1867, Prince Jerome's Gulf, an inlet upon the mainland of the Chyung-chyöng Province, was to be the scene of Oppert's famous attempt to remove large deposits of buried treasure and venerated relics from an imperial tomb. These names upon the east and west coasts suggest nothing of the romance which actually surrounds them. At most they conjure up the shadowy silhouettes of the redoubtable personages to whom they once belonged, and with whose memory many journeys of discovery in these seas are inseparably linked.

Englishmen were not the sole navigators who were attracted by the unknown character of the land and the surpassing dangers of the waters, around the Island of Quelpart, where the Sea of Japan mingles in tempestuous chaos with the Yellow Sea. Russian and French navigators also worked their way through the dangerous shoals and quicksands, along the tortuous and muddy rivers, into the harbours and through the narrow straits which hold back these islands from the mainland. The shores teem with the distinguished names of men of science and sons of the high seas. Following the curl and twist of its configuration a host of buried names are revealed, the last evidence of men who are dead and forgotten. It is infinitely pathetic that even this one last resting-place should be denied to their reputations.

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Lazreli, who shares Broughton's Bay; Unkoffsky, who foundered in the waters of the bay which is described by his name; the ill-fated La Pérouse, who, in June, 1787, discovered in the Sea of Japan an island which now bears the name of the astronomer — Dagelet, Durock, Pellisier, Schwartz, and the rest — what echo do we find of them, their fates, and subsequent careers? Should not their names at least bear witness to their pains and labours, to the difficulties which they faced, to the small joy of something attempted, something done, which was their sole consolation for many hours of cheerless and empty vigil?

Korea is a land of exceptional beauty. The customs, the literature, and the geographical nomenclature of the kingdom prove that the superb and inspiring scenery of the peninsula is quite appreciated by the people. In the same manner that the coast-line of Korea bears evidence of the adventurous spirit of many western mariners, the names given to the mountains and rivers of the country by the inhabitants themselves reflect the simplicity, the crudity, and the superstition of their ideas and beliefs. All mountains are personified in Korea. In the popular belief, they are usually associated with dragons. Every village offers sacrifices to the mountain-spirits. Shrines are erected by the way-side and in the mountain passes, that travellers may tender their offerings to the spirits and secure their goodwill. The Koreans believe that the mountains in some way exert a benign and protecting influ-

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ence. The capital of Korea possesses its guardian-mountain. Every town relies upon some preserving power to maintain its existence. Graves, too, must have their custodian peaks, or the family will not prosper, and the impression prevails that people are born in accordance with the conformation of the hills upon which the tombs of their ancestors are situated. Rough and rugged contours make for warriors and militant males. Smooth surfaces and gentle descents beget scholars; peaks of singular charm and position are associated with beautiful women. Like the mountain-ranges, lakes and pools, rivers and streams exercise geomantic powers, and they are the abodes of presiding shades, benevolent or pernicious. In lakes, there are dragons and lesser monsters. In mountain pools, however, no wraith exists unless some one is drowned in the waters of the pool. When this fatality occurs, the figure of the dead haunts the pool until released by the ghost of the next person who meets with this misfortune. The serpent is almost synonymous with the dragon. Certain fish become in time fish-dragons; snakes become elevated to the dignity, and imbued with the ferocity, of dragons when they have spent one thousand years in the captivity of the mountains, and one thousand years in the water. All these apparitions may be propitiated with sacrifices and prayers.

In the province of Kang-won, through which the ranges of the Diamond Mountains pass, there are several peaks symbolical of this belief in the existence

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of supernatural monsters. One dizzy height is named the Yellow Dragon, a second the Flying Phoenix, and a third, the Hidden Dragon, has reference to a demon who has not yet risen from the earth before his ascent to the clouds. The names which the Koreans give to their rivers, lakes and villages, as also to their mountains, bear out their wish to see the natural beauties of their land associated with its more distinctive features. This idiosyncrasy, however, would seem to be exceptionally pronounced in the case of mountains. The Mountain fronting the Moon, the Mountain facing the Sun, the Tranquil Sea, the Valley of Cool Shade, and the Hill of White Clouds emphasise this desire. Again, in Hamkyöng, the most northern province in the empire, the more conspicuous peaks receive such designations as the Peak of Continuous Virtue, the Peak of the Thousand Buddhas, the Lasting Peace, the Sword Mountain, Heaven Reaching Peak, the Cloud Toucher. It is evident, therefore, that appreciation of nature, no less than reverence for the supernatural, underlies the system by which they evolve names for the landmarks of their country. The peculiarities of their land afford great scope for such a practice, and it is to be admitted that they give ample vent to this peculiar trait in their imagination.

From very early times until 1895 the king of Korea was a vassal of China, but the complete renunciation of the authority of the emperor of China was proclaimed in January, 1895, by an

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imperial decree. This was the fruit of the Chino-Japanese war, and it was ratified by China under the seal of the treaty of peace signed at Shimonosaki in May of the same year. The monarchy is hereditary and the present dynasty has occupied the throne of Korea in continuous entail since 1392. Inhabited by a people whose traditions and history extend over a period of five thousand years, and subjected to kaleidoscopic changes whereby smaller tribes were absorbed by larger, and weaker governments overthrown by stronger, Korea has gradually evolved one kingdom, which, embracing all units under her own protection, has presented to the world through centuries a more or less composite and stable authority. There can be no doubt that the whilom vassal of China, in respect of which China and Japan made war, has taken much greater strides upon the path of progress than her ancient neighbour and liege lord. There is no question of the superiority of the conditions under which the Koreans in Seoul live and those prevailing in Peking, when each city is regarded as the capital of its country — the representative centre in which all that is best and brightest congregates.

It was in 1876 that Korea made her first modern treaty. It was not until three years later that any exchange of envoys took place between the contracting party and herself. Despite the treaty, Korea showed no disposition to profit by the existence of her new relations, until the opening of Chemulpo to trade in the latter part of 1883 revealed to her

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the commercial advantages which she was now in a position to enjoy. All this time China had been in intercourse with foreigners. Legations had been established in her capital; consuls were in charge of the open ports; commercial treaties had been arranged. She was already old and uncanny in the wisdom which came to her by this dealing with the people of Western nations. But, in a spirit of perversity without parallel in constitutional history, China retired within herself to such a degree that Japan, within one generation, has advanced to the position of a great power, and even Korea has become, within twenty years, the superior of her former liege. In less than a decade Korea has promoted works of an industrial or humanitarian character which China, at the present time, is bitterly and fatally opposing. It is true that the liberal tendencies of Korea have been stimulated by association with the Japanese. Without the guiding hand of that energetic country the position which she would enjoy to-day is infinitely problematical. The contact has been wholly beneficial. Its continuation forms the strongest guarantee of the eventual development of the resources of the kingdom.

CHAPTER II

LAND AND FOLK

KOREA is an extremely mountainous country. Islands, harbours, and mountains are its most pronounced natural features, and nearly the whole of the coast consists of the slopes of the various mountain ranges which come down to the sea. There are many patches upon the west, where the approaches are less precipitous and rugged than upon the east. The coast seems to follow the contour of the mountains. It presents, particularly from the east, that lofty and inaccessible barrier of forest-clad country, which has won the admiration of all navigators and struck terror into the hearts of those who have met with disaster upon its barren and rocky shores. From Paik-tu-san to Wi-ju there is one mighty and natural panorama of mountains with snow-clad, cloud-wrapped summits, and beautiful valleys with rich crops and quaintly placed, low-thatched hovels, through which rivers course like angry silver. Everywhere in the north the mountains predominate; monstrous in shape and size. They are rich in minerals; they have become sepulchres for the dead and mines for the living — for in their keeping lies the wealth of the ages, coal and iron and gold; upon their summits,

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resting beneath the sky or within some nook hewn from their rugged slopes, are the graves of the dead. Mining and agriculture are almost the only natural resources of the kingdom. There are great possibilities, however, in the awakening energies and instincts of the people, which may lead them to create markets of their own by growing more than suffices for their immediate requirements. As yet, notwithstanding the improvements which have been inaugurated, and the industrial schemes which the government has introduced, the reform movement lacks cohesion. Indeed, the nation is without ambition. But the prospect is hopeful. Already something has been accomplished in the right direction.

At present, however, Korea is in a state of transition. Everything is undefined and indetermined; the past is in ruins, the present and the future are in the rough. Reforms are scarce a decade old, and, while many abuses have been redressed, the reform movement suffers for lack of support, comprehension, and toleration. The aspirations of the few are extending but slowly to the nation. Progress is gradual and the interval is tedious. The commercial phase of the movement is full of vitality, and the factories which have been established show the evolution of enterprise from aspiration. Foreigners are introducing education, while the present commercial activities are attributable to their suggestion and assistance. The small response, which these efforts elicit, make the labour of keeping the nation in the right direction very

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difficult. The people can scarcely relapse into the conservatism of ancient days, but they may collapse altogether, owing to the unfortunate circumstances which are now making Korea an object of ironical and interested observation among the Western powers. She may be absorbed, annexed, or divided; in endeavouring to remain independent, she may wreck herself in the general anarchy that may overtake her. She has given much promise. She has constituted a Customs service, joined in the Postal Union and opened her ports. She has admitted railways and telegraphs, and shown kindness, consideration, and hospitality to every condition of foreigner within her gates. Her confidence has been that of a child and her faults are those of the nursery. She is so old and yet so infinitely young; and, by a curious fatality, she is now face to face with a situation which again and again has occurred in her past history.

The introduction of Western inventions to Korea has gradually eliminated from contemporary Korean life many customs which, associated with the people and their traditions from time immemorial, imparted much of the repose and picturesqueness which have so far distinguished the little kingdom. Korea, in the twentieth century, bears ample evidence of the forward movement which is stimulating its people. Once the least progressive of the countries of the Far East, she now affords an exception almost as noticeable as that shown by the prompt assimilation of Western ideas and methods by Japan. Chemulpo,

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however, the centre in which an important foreign settlement and open port have sprung up, does not suggest in itself the completeness of the transformation which in a few years has taken place in the capital. It is twenty years since Chemulpo was opened to foreign trade, and to-day it boasts a magnificent bund, wide streets, imposing shops, and a train service which connects with the capital. Its sky is threaded with a maze of telephone and telegraph wires, there are several hotels conducted upon Western principles, and there is, also, an international club.

At the threshold of the new century, the port presents an interesting study. With the adjoining Ha-do, a hamlet of military pretensions, it has grown in the twenty years of its existence from a cluster of fishermen's huts behind a hill along the river at Man-sak-dong into a prosperous cosmopolitan centre of twenty thousand people. Its growth, since the first treaty was negotiated with the West upon May 22, 1882, by the American Admiral Shufeldt, has been extraordinary. Its earlier years gave no promise of its rapid and significant advance. Trade has flourished, and a boom in the trade of the port has sent up the value of local properties. There is now danger of a decline in this state of affluence which may, in view of the chaos and uncertainty of the future of the kingdom, retard the settlement and disastrously affect its present prosperity. From small and uncertain beginnings four well-built, well-lighted settlements have sprung up,

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expanding into a general foreign, a Japanese, a Chinese, and a Korean quarter. The Japanese section is the best situated and the most promising. The interests of this particular nation are also the most prominent in the export and import trade of the port, a position which is emphasised still further by the important nature of its vested interests, among which the railroad between Seoul, the capital, and Chemulpo, with the trunk extension to Fusan, is paramount. The Japanese population increased by nearly five hundred during 1901. It then numbered some four thousand six hundred, of whom a few hundred were soldiers constituting a temporary garrison for the settlement. However, since the modification by the Japanese government of the emigration laws with reference to China and Korea, under which, in the first weeks of 1902, the necessity for travelling passports was abolished in the case of these two countries, there has been a great increase in the number of Japanese residents at the treaty ports. The settlement at Chemulpo now embraces one thousand two hundred and eighty-two houses, and possesses a population of five thousand nine hundred and seventy-three adults. The census of the Chinese settlement fluctuates with the season; considerable numbers of farmers cross from Shan-tung to Korea during the summer, returning to their native land in winter. In the period of exodus from China, the Chinese population exceeds twelve hundred. The complete strength of the general foreign settlement is eighty-

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six, of which some twenty-nine are British. The one British firm in Korea is established in Chemulpo.

There are many nationalities in Chemulpo, and the small community, excluding the Japanese and Chinese, is made up as follows: British, twenty-nine and one firm, the remaining twenty-eight being attached to the Vice-Consulate, the Customs, and a missionary society; American, eight and two firms; French, six and one firm; German, sixteen and one firm; Italian, seven and one firm; Russian, four and two firms; Greek, two and one firm; Portuguese seven, Hungarian five, and Dutch two, the last three possessing no firms in the port.

A street full of Koreans aptly suggests, as Mr. Henry Norman, M.P., once wrote, the orthodox notion of the Resurrection. It cannot be denied that the appearance of both men and women makes the capital peculiarly attractive. The men are fine, well-built, and peaceful fellows, dignified in their bearing, polite and even considerate towards one another. The type shows unmistakable evidences of descent from the half savage and nomadic tribes of Mongolia and Northern Asia and the Caucasian peoples from Western Asia.

These two races, coming from the North in the one case and drifting up from the South in the other, at the time of the Ayran invasion of India, peopled the north and south of Korea. Finally merging among themselves, they gave to the world a composite nation, distinct in types, habits, and speech, and amalgamated only by a rare train of circumstances

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over which they could have had no control. It is by the facial resemblances that the origin of the Koreans may be traced to a Caucasian race. The speech of the country, while closely akin to Chinese, reproduces sounds and many verbal denominations which are found in the languages of India. Korea has submitted to the influence of Chinese arts and literature for centuries, but there is little actual agreement between the legends of the two countries. The folk-lore of China is in radical disagreement with the vague and shadowy traditions of the people of Korea. There is a vast blank in the early history of Korea, at a period when China is represented by many unimpaired records. Research can make no advance in face of it: surmise and logical reflections from extraneous comparisons can alone supply the requisite data. Posterity is thus presented with an unrecorded chapter of the world's history which at best can be only faintly sketched.

If British interests are not materially represented in Chemulpo, other nationalities are less backward. By means of the Trans-Siberian Railway, the journey from London to Chemulpo can now be accomplished within twenty-one days. When the Seoul-Fusan Railway is finished, communication between the East and the West will be still further facilitated. It is intended that less than two days shall suffice for the connection between Chemulpo and Tokio. Meanwhile the service of the Chinese Eastern Railway Company's steamers between Port Arthur, Dalny, and Chemulpo has

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been accelerated. In addition, also, imposing new offices have been erected at the port. It is much to be regretted that there is no regular service of British steamers to the ports of Korea. In singular contrast to the apathy of British steamship companies is the action of the Hamburg-America Company, which has now arranged for the periodic visits of its steamers to Chemulpo. From a commercial standpoint the port has become an important distributing centre. Foreign trade with the capital and its environs passes through it, and the administrative officers of the more important gold-mining concessions, of which there are now four, American, Japanese, French, and British, have settled there. A cigarette factory, supported by the government, is now in operation in the port.

CHAPTER III

A CITY OF PEACE

THE situation in which Seoul lies is enchanting. High hills and mountains rise close to the city, their sides rough, rugged, and bleak, save where black patches of bushes and trees struggle for existence. The hollows within this rampart of hills, and beyond the walls, are fresh and verdant. Small rice-fields, with clusters of thatched hovels in their midst, stretch between the capital and the port at Chemulpo. The atmosphere is clear; the air is sweet; the city is neat and orderly. It is possible, moreover, to live with great comfort in the three-storied brick structure, which, from a pretty collection of Korean buildings, nestling beneath the city wall, has been converted into the Station Hotel.

There is but one wall round Seoul. It is neither so high nor so massive as the wall of Peking; yet the situation of the city gains so much in beauty from the enclosing mountains, that it seems to be much the more picturesque. If the capital of Korea is more charmingly situated than the capital of China, the wall of Seoul is reminiscent of the walls of the Nankow Pass in the superb disdain with which it clings to the edges of the mountains, climbing the

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most outlandish places in the course of its almost purposeless meanderings. It extends beyond the lofty crests of Peuk-an and across the splendid and isolated peak of Nan-sam, enclosing a forest in one direction, a vacant and soulless plain in another, dropping here into a ravine, to emerge again a few hundred feet higher on the mountain slopes. The wall is in good preservation. In places it is a rampart of mud faced with masonry; more generally it is a solid structure of stone, fourteen miles in circumference, twenty-five to forty feet in height, battlemented along its entire length and pierced by eight arches of stone. The arches serve as gateways; they are crowned with high tiled towers, the gables of which curve in the fashion of China.

Within the radius of these stone walls, the city spreads itself across a plain, or high on the mountain side, within the snug shelter of some hollow, enjoys a pleasant, cool, and comfortable seclusion. Within its metropolitan area there are changes of scenery which would delight the most weary sight-seer. Beyond these limits, the appearance and character of the country is refreshing, and is without that monotonous dead-level stretch of plain, which, reaching to the walls of Peking, detracts so greatly from the position of that capital. Within this broader vista there are hills and wooded valleys. Villages rest beneath the grey, cool shadows of the bush. Upon the hills lie many stately tombs, fringes of trees shielding them from the rush of the winds. There are pretty walks or rides in every

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quarter, and there is no fear of molestation. Everywhere it is peaceful; foreigners pass unnoticed by the peasants, who, lazily scratching the surface of their fields, or ploughing in the water of their rice plots with stately bulls, occupy their time with gentle industry. It is more by reason of a bountiful nature that has endowed their land with fertility, than by careful management or expenditure of energy that it serves their purpose.

A few years ago it was thought that the glory of the ancient city had departed. Indeed, the extreme state of neglect into which the capital had fallen gave some justification for this opinion. Now, however, the prospect is suggestive of prosperity. The old order is giving way to the new. So quickly has the population learned to appreciate the results of foreign intercourse that, in a few more years, it will be difficult to find in Seoul any remaining link with the capital of yore. The changes have been somewhat radical. The introduction of telegraphy has made it unnecessary to signal nightly the safety of the kingdom by beacons from the crests of the mountains. The gates are no longer closed at night; no more does the evening bell clang sonorously throughout the city at sunset, and the runners before the chairs of the officials have for some time ceased to announce in strident voices the passing of their masters. Improvements, which have been wrought also in the conditions of the city—in its streets and houses, in its sanitary measures and in its methods of communication — have replaced these

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ancient customs. An excellent and rapid train runs from Chemulpo; electric trams afford quick transit within and beyond the capital; even electric lights illuminate by night some parts of the chief city of the Hermit Kingdom. Moreover, an aqueduct is mentioned; the police force has been reorganised; drains have come and evil odours have fled.

The period which has passed since the country was opened to foreign trade has given the inhabitants time to become accustomed to the peculiar differences which distinguish foreigners. It has afforded Koreans countless opportunities to select for themselves such institutions as may be calculated to promote their own welfare, and to provide at the same time compensating advantages for their departure from tradition. Not only by the construction of an electric tramway, the provision of long-distance telephones and telegraphs, the installation of electric light, a general renovation of its thoroughfares and its buildings, and the improvement of its system of drainage, does the capital of Korea give tokens of the spirit which is at work amongst its inhabitants. Reforms in education have also taken place; schools and hospitals have been opened; banks, foreign shops, and agencies have sprung up; a factory for the manufacture of porcelain ware is in operation; and the number and variety of the religions with which foreign missionaries are wooing the people are as amazing and complex as in China. There will be no absence in the future of those soothing conjectures from which the consolations of religion

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may be derived. The conduct of educational affairs is arranged upon a basis which now gives every facility for the study of foreign subjects. Special schools for foreign languages, conducted by the government under the supervision of foreign teachers, have been instituted. Indeed, most striking changes have been made in the curriculum of the common schools of the city. Mathematics, geography, history, besides foreign languages, are all subjects in the courses of these establishments, and, only lately, a special School of Survey, under foreign direction, has been opened. The enlightenment which is thus spreading throughout the lower classes cannot fail to secure some eventual modification of the views and sentiments by which the upper classes regard the progress of the country. As a sign of the times, it is worthy to note that several native newspapers have been started; while the increase of business has created the necessity for improved facilities in financial transactions, a development which has appealed not only to the Dai Ichi Ginko. The Russo-Chinese Bank is proposing to contend with this Japanese financial house. The establishment at Chemulpo of a branch of the Russian Bank is contemplated, from whence will come an issue of rouble notes to compete with the various denominations of the Japanese Bank. Moreover, the government is preparing to erect a large building in foreign style in the centre of the city, to be used as the premises of the Central Bank of Korea. It will be a three-storied building, and it is intended

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to establish branches in all the thirteen provinces of the empire. Its chief aim is to facilitate the transfer of government moneys, the transport of which has always been a severe tax upon the government. It will, however, engage in general banking business, and for this purpose Yi Yong-ik, the president of the Central Bank, is preparing at the government mint one, five, ten, and one hundred dollar bills for issue by it.

Old Seoul, with its festering alleys, its winter accumulations of every species of filth, its plastering mud and penetrating foulness, has almost totally vanished from within the walls of the capital. The streets are magnificent, spacious, clean, admirably made and well drained. The narrow, dirty lanes have been widened; gutters have been covered, and roadways broadened; until, with its trains, its cars, and its lights, its miles of telegraph lines, its Railway Station Hotel, brick houses and glass windows, Seoul is within measurable distance of becoming the brightest, most interesting, and cleanest city in the East. It is still not one whit Europeanised, for the picturesqueness of the purely Korean principles and standards of architecture has been religiously maintained, and is to be observed in all future improvements.

The shops still cling to the sides of the drains; the jewellers' shops hang above one of the main sewers of the city; the cabinet and table-makers occupy both sides of an important thoroughfare, their precious furniture half in and half out of filthy gutters.

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A Korean cabinet is a thing of great beauty. It is embossed with brass plates and studded with brass nails, very massive, well dovetailed, altogether superior in design and finish. The work of the jewellers is crude and unattractive, although individual pieces may reveal some artistic conception. In the main the ornaments include silver bangles, hairpins and earrings, with a variety of objects suitable for the decoration of the hair. The grain merchants and the vegetable dealers conduct their business in the road. The native merchant loves to encroach upon the public thoroughfares whenever possible. Once off the main streets of the city, the side alleys are completely blocked to traffic because of the predilection of the shopkeepers upon either side of the little passages to push their wares prominently into the roadway. The business of butchering is in Korea the most degraded of all trades. It is beyond even the acceptance and recognition of the most humble orders of the community. The meat shops are unpleasantly near the main drains.

CHAPTER IV

COSTUME, MANNERS AND MORALS

THE distinction in the costumes of the different classes is evinced perhaps by the difference in their prices. The dress of a noble costs several hundred dollars. It is made from the finest silk lawn which can be woven upon the native looms. It is exceedingly costly, of a very delicate texture, and cream colour. It is ample in its dimensions and sufficiently enveloping to suggest a bath robe. It is held in place by two large amber buttons placed well over upon the right breast. A silken girdle of mauve cord encircles the body below the arm-pits. The costume of any one individual may comprise a succession of these silken coats of cream silk lawn, or white silk lawn, in spotless condition, with an outer garment of blue silk lawn. The movement of a number of these people dressed in similar style is like the rustle of a breeze in a forest of leaves. The dress of the less exalted is no less striking in its unblemished purity. It costs but a few dollars. It is made from grass lawn of varying degrees of texture or of plain stout calico. It is first washed, then pounded with heavy sticks upon stones, and, after being dried, beaten again upon a stock until it has taken a brilliant polish. This

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is the sole occupation of the women of the lower classes, and through many hours of the day and night the regular and rhythmic beating of these laundry sticks may be heard.

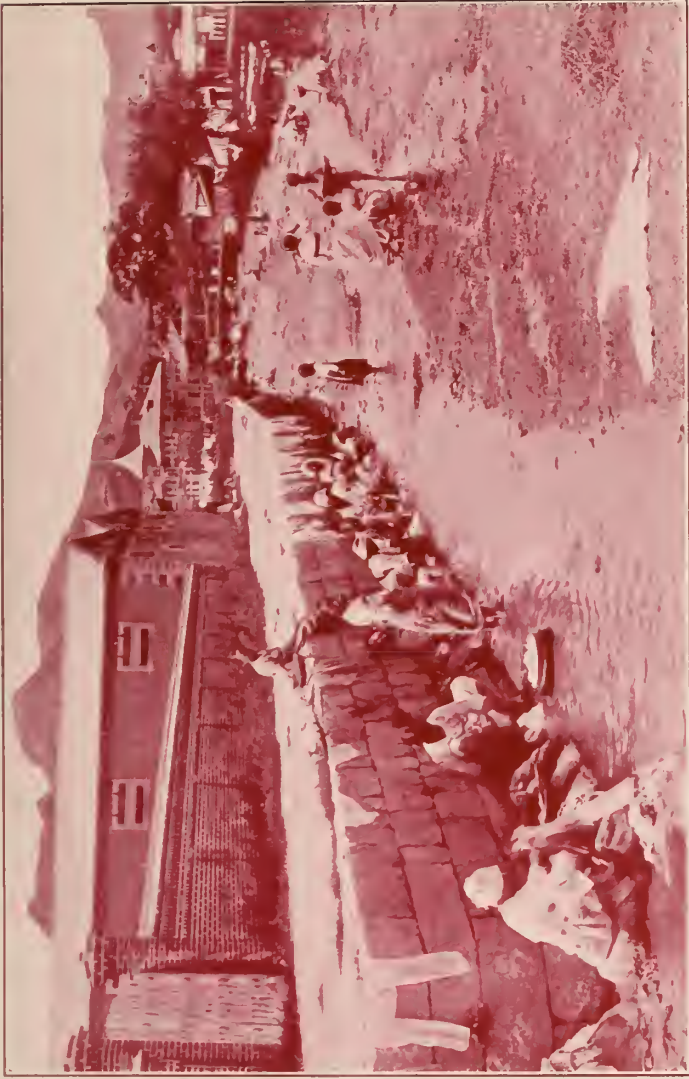
The costume of the women is in some respects peculiar to the capital. The upper garment consists of an apology for a zouave jacket in white or cream material, which may be of silk lawn, lawn or calico. A few inches below this begins a white petticoat, baggy as a sail, touching the ground upon all sides, and attached to a broad band. Between the two there is nothing except the bare skin, the breasts being fully exposed. It is not an agreeable spectacle, as the women seen abroad are usually aged or infirm. At all times, as if to emphasise their fading charms, they wear the *chang-ot*, a thin, green silk cloak, almost peculiar to the capital and used by the women to veil their faces in passing through the public streets. Upon the sight of man, they clutch it beneath the eyes. The neck of the garment is pulled over the head of the wearer, and the long wide sleeves fall from her ears. The effect of the contrast between the hidden face and the naked breast is exceptionally ludicrous. When employed correctly only one eye, a suggestion of the cheek, and a glimpse of the temple and forehead are revealed. It is, however, almost unnecessary, since in the case of the great majority of women, their sole charm is the possible beauty that the *chang-ot* may conceal. They wear no other head-covering. For ordinary occasions they dress their

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hair quite simply at the nape of the neck, in a fashion not unlike that which Mrs. Langtry introduced.

The head-dress of the men shows great variety, much as their costume possesses a distinctive character. When they are in mourning, the first stage demands a hat as large as a diminutive open clothes-basket. It is four feet in circumference and completely conceals the face, which is hidden further by a piece of coarse lawn stretched upon two sticks, and held just below the eyes. In this stage nothing whatever of the face may be seen. The second stage is denoted by the removal of the screen. The third period is manifested by the replacement of the inverted basket by the customary head-gear, made in straw colour. The ordinary head-covering takes the shape of the high-crowned hat worn by Welsh women, with a broad brim, made in black gauze upon a bamboo frame. It is held in place by a chain beneath the chin or a string of pieces of bamboo, between each of which small amber beads are inserted. There are a variety of indoor and ceremonial caps and bandeaux which are worn by the upper and middle classes.

The hair is dressed differently by single and married men. If unmarried, they adopt the queue; when married, they put up their hair and twist it into a conical mass upon their heads, keeping it in place by a woven horsehair band, which completely encircles the forehead and base of the skull. A few, influenced by Western manners, have cropped their hair. This is specially noticeable among the sol-



NATIVE KOREAN WOMEN WASHING CLOTHES

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diers on duty in the city, while, in compliance with the orders of the emperor, all military and civil officials in the capital have adopted the foreign style. Boys and girls, the queerest and most dirty little brats, are permitted up to a certain age to roam about the streets, to play in the gutters, and about the sewage pits in a state of complete nudity — a form of economy which is common throughout the Far East. The boys quickly drift into clothes and occupations of a kind. The girls of the poorer orders are sold as domestic slaves and become attached to the households of the upper classes. From their subsequent appearance in the street, when they run beside the chairs of their mistresses, it is quite evident that they are taught to be clean and even dainty in their appearance. At this youthful age they are quaint and healthy looking children. The conditions under which they live, however, soon produce premature exhaustion.

Despite the introduction of certain reforms, there is still much of the old world about Seoul, many relics of the Hermit Kingdom. Women are still most carefully secluded. The custom, which allows those of the upper classes to take outdoor exercise only at night, is observed. Men are, however, no longer excluded from the streets at such hours. The spectacle of these white spectres of the night, flitting from point to point, their footsteps lighted by the rays of the lantern which their girl-slaves carry before them, is as remarkable as the appear-

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ance of Seoul by daylight, with its moving masses all garmented in white.

The inhabitants of the Hermit Kingdom are peculiarly proficient in the art of doing nothing gracefully. There is, therefore, infinite charm and variety in the daily life of Korea. The natives take their pleasures passively, and their constitutional incapacity makes it appear as if there were little to do but to indulge in a gentle stroll in the brilliant sunshine, or to sit cross-legged within the shade of their houses. Inaction becomes them; nothing could be more unsuited to the character of their peculiar costume than vigorous movement. The stolid dignity of their appearance and their stately demeanour adds vastly to the picturesqueness of the street scenes. The white-coated, white-trousered, white-socked, slowly striding population is irresistibly fascinating to the eye. The women are no less interesting than the men. The unique fashion of their dress, and its general dissimilarity to any other form of feminine garb the world has ever known, renders it sufficiently characteristic of the vagaries of the feminine mind to be attractive.

Women do not appear very much in the streets during daylight. The degree of their seclusion depends upon the position which they fill in society. In a general way the social barriers which divide everywhere the three classes are well defined here. The *yang-ban* or noble is, of course, the ruling class. The upper-class woman lives rather like a woman in a zenana; from the age of twelve she is visible

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only to the people of her household and to her immediate relatives. She is married young, and thenceforth her acquaintances among men are restricted solely to within the fifth degree of cousinship. She may visit her friends, being usually carried by four bearers in a screened chair. She seldom walks, but should she do so her face is invariably veiled in the folds of a *chang-ot*. Few restrictions are imposed upon the women of the middle class as to their appearance in the streets, nor are they so closely secluded in the house as their aristocratic sisters; their faces are, however, veiled. The *chang-ot* is by no means so complete a medium of concealment as the veil of Turkey. Moreover, it is often cast aside in old age. The dancing-girls, slaves, nuns, and prostitutes, all included in the lowest class, are forbidden to wear the *chang-ot*. Women doctors, too, dispense with it, though only women of the highest birth are allowed to practise medicine.

In a general way, the chief occupation of the Korean woman is motherhood. Much scandal arises if a girl attains her twentieth year without having married, while no better excuse exists for divorce than sterility. In respect of marriage, however, the wife is expected to supplement the fortune of her husband and to contribute to the finances of the household. When women of the upper classes wish to embark in business, certain careers, other than that of medicine, are open to them. They may cultivate the silk-worm, start an apiary, weave straw shoes, conduct a wine-shop, or assume the

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position of a teacher. They may undertake neither the manufacture of lace and cloth, nor the sale of fruit and vegetables. A descent in the social scale increases the number and variety of the callings which are open to women. Those of the middle class may engage in all the occupations of the upper classes, with the exception of medicine and teaching. They may become concubines, act as cooks, go out as wet nurses, or fill posts in the palace. They may keep any description of shop, tavern, or hotel; they possess certain fishing privileges, which allow them to take clams, cuttle-fish, and *bêches de mer*. They may make every kind of boot and shoe. They may knit fishing-nets, and fashion tobacco-pouches.

If some little respect be accorded to women of the middle classes, those of the lower status are held in contempt. Of the occupations open to women of the middle classes, there are two in which women of humble origin cannot engage. They are ineligible for any position in the palace: they may not manufacture tobacco-pouches. They may become sorceresses, jugglers, tumblers, contortionists, dancing-girls and courtesans. There is wide distinction between the members of the two oldest professions which the world has ever known: the dancing-girl usually closes her career by becoming the concubine of some wealthy noble; the courtesan does not close her career at all.

It is impossible not to admire the activity and energy of the Korean woman. Despite the contempt with which she is treated, she is the great

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economic factor in the household and in the life of the nation. Force of circumstance has made her the beast of burden. She works that her superior lord and master may dwell in idleness, comparative luxury, and peace. In spite of the depressing and baneful effects of this absurd dogma of inferiority, and in contradiction of centuries of theory and philosophy, her diligent integrity is more evident in the national life than her husband's industry. She is exceptionally active, vigorous in character, resourceful in emergency, superstitious, persevering, indomitable, courageous, and devoted. Among the middle and lower classes she is the tailor and the laundress of the nation. She does the work of a man in the household and of a beast in the fields; she cooks and sews; she washes and irons; she organises and carries on a business, or tills and cultivates a farm. In the face of every adversity, and in those times of trial and distress in which her liege and lazy lord utterly and hopelessly collapses, it is she who holds the wretched, ramshackle home together. Under the previous dynasty, the sphere of the women of Korea was less restricted. There was no law of seclusion; the sex enjoyed greater public freedom. In its closing decades, however, the tone of society lowered, and women became the special objects of violence. Buddhist priests were guilty of widespread debauchery; conjugal infidelity was a pastime; rape became the fashion. The present dynasty endeavoured to check these evils by ordaining and promoting the isolation and greater subjection of the sex. Vice

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and immorality had been so long and so promiscuously practised, however, that already men had begun to keep their women in seclusion of their own accord. If they respected them to some extent, they were wholly doubtful of one another. Distrust and suspicion were thus the pre-eminent causes of this immuring of the women, the system developing of itself, as the male Koreans learnt to dread the evil propensities of their own sex. It is possible that the women find, in that protection which is now accorded them, some little compensation for the drudgery and interminable hard work that is their portion.

The system of slavery among the Koreans is confined, at present, to the possession of female slaves. Up to the time of the great invasion of Korea by the Japanese armies under Hideyoshi, in 1592, both male and female slaves were permitted. The loss of men in that war was so great that, upon its conclusion, a law was promulgated which forbade the bondage of males. There is, however, the *sang-no* (slave boy), who renders certain services only, and receives his food and clothes in compensation. The position of the *sang-no* is more humble than that filled by the paid servant and superior to that of the slave proper. He is bound by no agreement and is free to leave.

The duties of a slave comprise the rough work of the house. She attends to the washing — an exacting and continuous labor in a Korean household; carries water from the well, assists with the cooking,

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undertakes the marketing, and runs errands. She is not allowed to participate in any duties of a superior character; her place is in the kitchen or in the yard, and she cannot become either a lady's maid or a favoured servant of any degree. In the fulness of time she may figure in the funeral procession of her master.

There are four ways by which the Korean woman may become a slave. She may give herself into slavery, voluntarily, in exchange for food, clothes, and shelter through her abject poverty. The woman who becomes a slave in this way cannot buy back her freedom. She has fewer rights than the slave who is bought or who sells herself. The daughter of any slave who dies in service continues in slavery. In the event of the marriage of her mistress such a slave ranks as a part of the matrimonial *dot*. A woman may be reduced to slavery by the treasonable misdemeanours of a relative. The family of a man convicted of treason becomes the property of the government, the women being allotted to high officials. They are usually liberated. Again, a woman may submit herself to the approval of a prospective employer. If she is found satisfactory and is well recommended, her services may realise between forty, fifty, or one hundred thousand cash. When payment has been made, she gives a deed of her own person to her purchaser, imprinting the outline of her hand upon the document, in place of a seal, and for the purpose of supplying easy means of identification. Although this transaction does

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not receive the cognisance of the government, the contract is binding.

As the law provides that the daughter of a slave must take the place of her parent, should she die, it is plainly in the interests of the owner to promote the marriage of his slaves. Slaves who receive compensation for their services are entitled to marry whom they please; quarters are provided for the couple. The master of the house, however, has no claim upon the services of the husband. The slave who voluntarily assigns herself to slavery and receives no price for her services may not marry without consent. In these cases it is not an unusual custom for the master to restore her liberty in the course of a few years.

Hitherto, the position of the Korean woman has been so humble that her education has been unnecessary. Save among those who belong to the less reputable classes, the literary and artistic faculties are left uncultivated. Among the courtesans, however, the mental abilities are trained and developed with a view to making them brilliant and entertaining companions. The one sign of their profession is the culture, the charm, and the scope of their attainments. These "leaves of sunlight," a feature of public life in Korea, stand apart in a class of their own. They are called *gisaing*, and correspond to the *geisha* of Japan; the duties, environments, and mode of existence of the two are almost identical. Officially, they are attached to a department of government and are controlled by a bureau of their

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own, in common with the court musicians. They are supported from the national treasury, and they are in evidence at official dinners and all palace entertainments. They read and recite; they dance and sing; they become accomplished artists and musicians. They dress with exceptional taste; they move with exceeding grace; they are delicate in appearance, very frail and very human, very tender, sympathetic, and imaginative. By their artistic and intellectual endowment, the dancing-girls, ironically enough, are debarred from the positions for which their talents so peculiarly fit them. They may move through, and as a fact do live in, the highest society. They are met at the houses of the most distinguished; they may be selected as the concubines of the Emperor, become the *femmes d'amour* of a prince, the puppets of the noble. A man of breeding may not marry them, however, although they typify everything that is brightest, liveliest, and most beautiful. Amongst their own sex, their reputation is in accordance with their standard of morality, a distinction being made between those whose careers are embellished with the *quasi* chastity of a concubine, and those who are identified with the more pretentious display of the mere prostitute.

In the hope that their children may achieve that success which will ensure their support in their old age, parents, when stricken with poverty, dedicate their daughters to the career of a *gisaiing*, much as they apprentice their sons to that of a eunuch. The

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girls are chosen for the perfect regularity of their features. Their freedom from blemish, when first selected, is essential. They are usually pretty, elegant, and dainty. It is almost certain that they are the prettiest women in Korea, and, although the order is extensive and the class is gathered from all over the kingdom, the most beautiful and accomplished *gisain* come from Pyöng-an. The arts and graces in which they are so carefully educated, procure their elevation to positions in the households of their protectors, superior to that which is held by the legal wife. As a consequence, Korean folk-lore abounds with stories of the strife and wifely lamentations arising from the ardent and prolonged devotion of husbands to girls whom fate prevents their taking to a closer union. The women are light of stature, with diminutive, pretty feet, and graceful, shapely hands. They are quiet and unassuming in their manner. Their smile is bright; their deportment modest, their appearance winsome. They wear upon state occasions voluminous, silk-gauze skirts of variegated hues; a diaphanous silken jacket, with long loose sleeves, extending beyond the hands, protects the shoulders; jewelled girdles, pressing their naked breasts, sustain their draperies. An elaborate, heavy, and artificial head-dress of black hair, twisted in plaits and decorated with many silver ornaments, is worn. The music of the dance is plaintive and the song of the dancer somewhat melancholy. Many movements are executed in stockinged feet; the dances are quite free

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from indelicacy and suggestiveness. Indeed, several are curiously pleasing.

Upon one occasion, Yi-cha-sun, the brother of the Emperor, invited me to watch the dress rehearsal of an approaching Palace festival. Although this exceptional consideration was shown me unsolicited, I found it quite impossible to secure permission to photograph the gliding, graceful figures of the dancers. When my chair deposited me at the *yamen* the dance was already in progress. The chairs of the officials and chattering groups of the servants of the dancers filled the compound; soldiers of the Imperial Guard kept watch before the gates. The air was filled with the tremulous notes of the pipes and viols, whose plaintive screaming was punctuated with the booming of drums. Within a building, the walls of which were open to the air, the rows of dancers were visible as they swayed slowly and almost imperceptibly with the music.

From the dais where my host was sitting the dance was radiant with colour. There were eighteen performers, grouped in three equal divisions, and, as the streaming sunshine played upon the shimmering surface of their dresses, the lithe and graceful figures of the dancers floated in the brilliant reflection of a sea of sparkling light. The dance was almost without motion so slowly were its fantastic figures developed. Never once were their arms dropped from their horizontal position, nor did the size and weight of their head-dresses appear to fatigue the little women. Very slowly, the seated band gave

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forth the air. Very slowly, the dancers moved in the open space before us, their arms upraised, their gauze and silken draperies clustering round them, their hair piled high, and held in its curious shape by many jewelled and enamelled pins, which sparkled in the sunshine. The air was solemn; and, as if the movement were ceremonial, their voices rose and fell in a lingering harmony of passionate expression. At times, the three sets came together, the hues of the silken skirts blending in one vivid blaze of barbaric splendour. Then, as another movement succeeded, the eighteen figures broke apart and, poised upon their toes, in stately and measured unison circled round the floor, their arms rising and falling, their bodies bending and swaying, in dreamy undulation.

The dance epitomised the poetry and grace of human motion. The dainty attitudes of the performers had a gentle delicacy which was delightful. The long silken robes revealed a singular grace of deportment, and one looked upon dancers who were clothed from head to foot, not naked, brazen, and unashamed, like those of our own burlesque, with infinite relief and infinite satisfaction. There was power and purpose in their movements; artistic subtlety in their poses. Their flowing robes emphasised the simplicity of their gestures; the pallor of their faces was unconcealed; their glances were timid; their manner modest. The strange eerie notes of the curious instruments, the fluctuating cadence of the song, the gliding motion of the dan-

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cers, the dazzling sheen of the silks, the vivid colours of the skirts, the flush of flesh beneath the silken shoulder-coats, appealed to one silently and signally, stirring the emotions with an enthusiasm which was irrepressible.

The fascinating figures approached softly, smoothly sliding; and, as they glided slowly forward, the song of the music welled into passionate lamentation. The character of the dance changed. No longer advancing, the dancers moved in time to the beating of the drums; rotating circles of colour, their arms swaying, their bodies swinging backwards and forwards, as their retreating footsteps took them from us. The little figures seemed unconscious of their art; the musicians ignorant of the qualities of their wailing. Nevertheless, the masterly restraint of the band, the conception, skill, and execution of the dancers, made up a triumph of technique.

As the dance swept to its climax, nothing so accentuated the admiration of the audience as their perfect stillness. From the outer courts came for a brief instant the clatter of servants and the screams of angry stallions. Threatening glances quickly hushed the slaves, nothing breaking the magnetism of the dance for long. The dance ended, it became the turn of others to rehearse their individual contributions, while those who were now free sat chatting with my host, eating sweets, some smoking cigarettes, others cigars, and others the long native pipe. Many, discarding their head-dresses, lay upon their sitting mats, their eyes closed in momentary rest as their

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servants fanned them. His Highness apparently appreciated the familiarity with which they treated him. In the enjoyment and encouragement of their little jokes he squeezed their cheeks and pinched their arms, as he sat among them.

CHAPTER V

EDUCATION AND CRIME

UNTIL the introduction of foreign methods of education, and the establishment of schools upon modern lines, no very promising manifestation of intellect distinguished the Koreans. Even now, a vague knowledge of the Chinese classics, which in rare instances only can be considered a familiar acquaintanceship, sums up the requirements of the cultured classes. The upper classes of both sexes make some pretence of understanding the literature and language of China; but it is very seldom that the middle classes are able to read more than the mixed Chinese-Korean script of the native Press—in which the grammatical construction is purely Korean.

Despite the prevailing ignorance of Chinese, the Mandarin dialect of China is considered the language of polite society. It is the medium of official communication at the Court: the majority of the foreigners in the service of the Government have also mastered its intricacies. It has been estimated by Professor Homer B. Hulbert, whose elaborate researches in Korean and Chinese philology make him a distinguished authority, that only one per cent. of the women of the upper class, who study

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Chinese, have any practical knowledge of it. Women of the middle and lower classes are ignorant of Chinese. Again, the proportion of upper class women who can read the Chinese classics is very small. It is probable that, out of an unselected assembly of Koreans, not more than five per cent. would be found who could take up a Chinese work and read it as glibly as a similar gathering of English might be expected to read ordinary Latin prose.

In relation to the *ön-mun*, the common script of Korea, there is, however, no such ignorance; the upper and middle classes study their native writing with much intelligence. The language of Korea is altogether different from that of China and Japan; it possesses an alphabet of its own, which at present consists of some twenty-five letters. It has been ascribed by certain Korean annals to the fifteenth century, A.D. 1447, when the King of Korea, resolving to assert his independence by abandoning the use of Chinese writing as the official medium of correspondence, invented an alphabet to suit the special requirements of the vernacular. Conservatism proved too strong, however, and the new script was gradually relegated to the use of the lower classes, and of women and children. There is an extensive literature in the vernacular. It includes translations from the Chinese and Japanese classics; historical works on modern and mediæval Korea, books of travel and hunting, of poetry and correspondence, and a range of fiction, dealing with those phases of human nature that are common to mankind.

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Many of these books are regularly studied by Korean women, ignorance of their contents being regarded with disdain by the women of the upper classes, and, in a less pronounced degree, by those of the middle classes. The female attendants in the Palace are the readiest students and scholars of the vernacular, their positions at Court requiring them to prepare *ön-mun* copies of Government orders, current news, and general gossip, for Imperial use. Books in native script are readily purchased by all conditions of Koreans, and taken out from circulating libraries. Many of the works are written in Chinese and in Korean upon alternate pages for those who can read only one or the other; those who are quite illiterate learning the more important chapters by ear. A work, with which every woman is supposed to be intimate, is entitled The Three Principles of Conduct, the great divisions being (1) The Treatment of Parents; (2) The Rearing of a Family; (3) Housekeeping. Companion books with this volume, and of equal importance to Korean women, are the Five Rules of Conduct and the Five Volumes of Primary Literature, which, in spirit and contents, are almost identical. They deal with the relations between (1) Parent and Child; (2) King and Subject; (3) Husband and Wife; (4) Old and Young; (5) Friend and Friend. They contain also exhortations to virtue and learning.

Apart from the direction and scope of female education in Korea, which I have now suggested, the theoretical study of the domestic arts is an invari-

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able accompaniment of the more intricate studies. It is supplemented with much actual experiment. As a consequence, while the education of men of certain rank is confined to the books to which they are but indifferently attentive, a wide range of study exists for women apart from the writings and teachings of the accepted professors and classical authorities. Ornamental elegances, the tricks and traits of our drawing-room minxes, are ignored by the gentler classes, vocal music and dancing being the accomplishments of dancing-girls and *demi-mondaines*. The arts of embroidery, dressmaking, sewing, and weaving absorb their attention until they have gone through the gamut of domestic economy. Occasionally women of the upper class learn to play the *kumungo*, an instrument some five feet long and one foot wide, bearing a faint resemblance to a zither and emitting a melancholy and discordant wail. There is one other stringed weapon, the *nageum*, but the awful screech of this unhappy viol overwhelms me, even in recollection. The usual and most simple amusement for the middle classes is the gentle, aimless stroll, for the purpose of "look see." Swinging, rope-games, dice, dominoes, and dolls find some favour as distractions.

If some little improvement has become noticeable in educational matters under the enlightening influence of the missionaries, great fault must be found with the condition of the law. It is, of course, not always possible to graft upon the legal proced-

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ure of one country a system of administration which works well in another. Specific outbursts of violence, arising from identical causes, assume different complexions when considered from the point of view of those who are proceeding to institute reforms. It may be submitted, further, that a certain element of barbarism in punishment is rendered necessary by the conditions of some countries, imposing a restraint upon a population which would scoff at punishment of a more civilised description. If exception may be taken to the penal code of Korea, it must be remembered that in the Far East the quality of justice is not tempered with mercy. Many punishments are still openly and frankly barbarous, while others are distinguished by their exceptional severity. Decapitation, mutilation, strangulation, or poisoning are less frequent than formerly.

Until within quite recent years it was the custom of Korean law to make the family of the arch-criminal suffer all his penalties with him. They are now exempted, and with the reforms introduced during the movement in 1895, some attempt was made to abolish practices opposed to the spirit of progress. The table, which I append, shows the punishments dispensed for certain crimes.

Treason, Man. . .	Decapitated, together with male relatives to the fifth degree. Mother, wife, and daughter poisoned or reduced to slavery.
Treason, Woman.	Poisoned.
Murder, Man. . .	Decapitated. Wife poisoned.

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Murder, Woman	Strangled or poisoned.
Arson, Man	Strangled or poisoned. Wife poisoned.
Arson, Woman	Poisoned.
Theft, Man	Strangled, decapitated, or banished. Wife reduced to slavery, confiscation of all property.
Desecration of graves	Decapitated, together with male relatives to the fifth degree. Mother, wife, and daughter poisoned.
Counterfeiting	Strangulation or decapitation. Wife poisoned.

Under the Korean law, no wife can obtain a legal dissolution of her marriage. The privilege of divorce rests with the man; among the upper classes it is uncommon. The wife, however, may leave her husband and accept the protection of some relative, when, unless the husband can disprove her charges, he has no redress. Should the wife fail to establish her case against her husband, the cost of the marriage ceremony, a large sum usually, is refunded by her relatives. The law does not force a wife to cohabit with her husband; nor, so far as it affects the woman, does it take any cognisance of the matter. A man may divorce his wife, retaining the custody of the children in every case, upon statutory grounds, and upon the following additional counts: indolence, neglect of the prescribed sacrifices, theft, and shrewishness. There is no appeal against the charges of the husband for women of the upper classes, domestic disturbances being considered entirely reprehensible. Much greater latitude prevails among the lower orders, irregular unions of a most benign

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elasticity being preferred. Concubinage is a recognised institution, and one in which the lower, as well as the higher, classes indulge.

The rights of the children of concubines vary according to the moral laxity of the class in which they are born. Among the upper classes they possess no claim against the estate of their progenitors; entail ignores them, and they may not observe the family sacrifices. In the absence of legitimate issue, a son must be adopted for the purpose of inheriting the properties of the family and of attending to the ancestral and funeral rites. Great stress is laid by the upper classes upon purity of descent; among the middle and lower orders there is more indulgence. Save in the lowest classes, it is usual to maintain a separate establishment for each concubine. The fact that among the lower classes concubine and wife share the same house is responsible for much of the unhappiness of Korean family life. In every case the position of the children of concubines corresponds with the status of the mother.

Within recent years, considerable changes have taken place in the Government and in the administration of the law. Under the old system the despotic thesis of divine right was associated with many abuses. Justice was not tempered by mercy, and, in the suppression of crime, it was not always the guilty who suffered. The old system of government was modelled upon the principles of the Ming rule in China. The power of the sovereign was abso-

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lute in theory and in practice. He was assisted by the three principal officers of State and six administrative boards, to whom, so soon as the country was brought into contact with foreign nations, additional bureaux were added. Modifications in the spirit, or in the letter of the law have taken place from time to time at the instance of reformers. Before the ascendancy of the Japanese came about, the principles and character of Korean law presented no very marked deviation from that which had been upheld in China through so many centuries. For a long time the intense conservatism of China reigned in Korea. The authority of the sovereign is more restricted to-day; but in the hands of a less enlightened monarch it would be just as effective as ever against the interests of the country. Happily, however, the era of progressive reform, which illustrated the inauguration of the Empire, continues.

CHAPTER VI

KOREAN INDUSTRIES

THE Koreans are an agricultural people, and most of the national industries are connected with agriculture. More than seventy per cent. of the population are farmers; the carpenter, the blacksmith, and the stonemason spring directly from this class, combining a knowledge of the forge or workshop with a life-long experience of husbandry. The schoolmaster is usually the son of a yeoman-farmer; the fisherman owns a small holding which his wife tills while he is fishing. The farming classes participate in certain industries of the country; the wives of the farmers raise the cotton, silk, linen, and grass-cloth of the nation, and they also convert the raw material into the finished fabrics. The sandals, mats, osier and wooden wares, which figure so prominently in Korean households, are the work of the farming classes in their leisure moments. The officials, the *yamen* runners, the merchants, inn-keepers, miners, and junk-men are not of this order, but they are often closely connected with it. The Government exists on the revenues raised from agriculture; the people live upon the fruits of the soil; Korean officials govern whole communities given over to agricultural

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labour. The internal economy of the country has been affiliated for centuries to the pursuits and problems of agriculture. Koreans are thus instinctively and intuitively agriculturists, and it is necessarily along these lines that the development of the country should in part progress.

It is impossible not to be impressed by a force which works so laboriously, while it takes no rest save that variety which comes in with the change of season. The peaceable, plodding farmer of Korea has his counterpart in his bull. The Korean peasant and his weary bull are made for one another. Without his ruminating partner, the work would be impracticable. It drags the heavy plough through the deep mud of the rice-fields, and over the rough surface of the grain lands; it carries loads of brick and wood to the market, and hauls the unwieldy market cart along the country roads. The two make a magnificent pair; each is a beast of burden. The brutishness, lack of intelligence, and boorishness of the agricultural labourer in England is not quite reproduced in the Korean. The Korean farmer has of necessity to force himself to be patient. He is content to regard his sphere of utility in this world as one in which man must labour after the fashion of his animals, with no appreciable satisfaction to himself.

Originally, if history speaks truly, the farmers of Korea were inclined to be masterful and independent. Indications of this earlier spirit are found nowadays in periodical protests against the extortionate de-

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mands of local officials. These disturbances are isolated and infrequent, for, when once their spirits were crushed, the farmers developed into the present mild and inoffensive type. They submit to oppression and to the cruelty of the *Yamen*; they endure every form of illegal taxation, and they ruin themselves to pay "squeezes," which exist only through their own humility. They dread the assumption of rank and the semblance of authority. Their fear of a disturbance is so great that, although they may murmur against the impositions of the magistrate, they continue to meet his demands.

At the present day the farmer of Korea is the ideal child of nature; superstitious, simple, patient, and ignorant. He is the slave of his work, and he moves no further from his village than the nearest market. He has a terrified belief in the existence of demons, spirits, and dragons, whose dirty and grotesque counterfeits adorn his thatched hut. There are other characteristic traits in this great section of the national life. Their capacity for work is unlimited; they are seldom idle, and, unlike the mass of their countrymen, they have no sense of repose. As farmers, they have by instinct and tradition certain ideas and principles which are excellent in themselves. To the wayfarer and stranger the individual farmer is supremely and surprisingly hospitable. A foreigner discussing the peculiarities of their scenery, their lands, and the general details of their life with them, is struck by their profound reverence for everything beyond their

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own understanding, and their amazing sense of the beautiful in nature. The simplicity of their appreciation is delightful. It is easy to believe that they are more susceptible to the charms of flowers and scenery than to that of woman.

At rare intervals the farmer indulges in a diversion. Succumbing to the seductions of market day, after the fashion of every other farmer the world has ever known, he returns to the homestead a physical and moral wreck, the drunk and disorderly residuum of many months of dreary abstinence and respectability. At these times he develops a phase of unexpected assertiveness, and forcibly abducts some neighbouring beauty, or beats in the head of a friend by way of enforcing his argument. From every possible point of view he reveals qualities which proclaim him the simple, if not ideal, child of nature.

During the many months of my stay in Korea I spent some days at a wayside farmhouse, the sole accommodation which could be obtained in a mountain village. The slight insight into the mode of life of the farming peasant which was thus gained was replete with interest, charm, and novelty. Knowing something of the vicissitudes of farm life, I found the daily work of this small community supremely instructive. Upon many occasions I watched the farmer's family and his neighbours at their work. The implements of these people are rude and few, consisting of a plough, with a movable iron shoe which turns the sods in the reverse direc-

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tion to our own; furnished with ropes and dragged by several men; bamboo flails and rakes, a spade, and a small hoe, sharp and heavy, used as occasion may require for reaping, chopping and hoeing, for the rough work of the farm, or the lighter service of the house.

During the harvest all available hands muster in the fields. The women cut the crop, the men fasten the sheaves, which the children load into rope panniers, suspended upon wooden frames from the backs of bulls. The harvest is threshed without delay, the men emptying the laden baskets upon the open road, and setting to with solemn and uninterrupted vigour. While the men threshed with their flails, and the wind winnowed the grain, six, and sometimes eight, women worked, with their feet, a massive beam, from which an iron or granite pestle hung over a deep granite mortar. This rough and ready contrivance pulverises the grain sufficiently for the coarse cakes which serve in lieu of bread.

Beyond the bull and pig, there are few farm animals in the inland districts. The pony and the donkey are not employed in agricultural work to the same extent as the bull. This latter animal is cared for more humanely than the unfortunate pony, whose good nature is ruined by the execrable harshness with which he is treated. The gross cruelty of the Korean to his pony is the most loathsome feature of the national life.

Irrigation is necessary only for the rice, which

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yields fairly abundant crops throughout Central and Southern Korea. To the north, rice makes way for millet, the great supplementary food of Korea. Elsewhere paddy-fields abound, and the people have become adepts in the principles of irrigation and the art of conserving water. Rice is sown in May, transplanted from the nurseries to the paddy-fields in June, and gathered in October. In times of drought, when it is necessary to tide over the period of distress, the fields are used for barley, oats, and rye which, ripening in May and cut in June, allow a supplementary crop to be taken from the fields. The fields are then prepared for the rice. The land is inundated; the peasant and his bull, knee-deep in water, plough the patches. Beans, peas, and potatoes are planted between the furrows of the cornfields, the land being made to produce to its full capacity. The crops are usually excellent.

The fields differ from those in China, where the farmers, preferring short furrows, grow their crops in small sections. The long furrows of the Korean fields recall Western methods, but here the analogy ends. The spectacle of these well-ordered acres is a revelation of the earnest way in which these down-trodden people combat adversity. In many ways, however, they need assistance and advice. If it were prudent to accomplish it, I would convert the mission centres of the inland districts into experimental farm-stations, and attach a competent demonstrator to each establishment.

The Koreans hold rice, their chief cereal, in pecul-

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iar honour. They state that it originated in Haram, in China, at a period now involved in much fable and mystery — 2838 B.C. to 2698 B.C. The name, Syang-nong-si, itself means Marvellous Agriculture. The name was doubtless given at a later time. The first rice was brought to Korea by Ki-ja in 1122 B.C. together with barley and other cereals. Before that time the only grain raised in Korea was millet. There are three kinds of rice in Korea, with a variety of sub-species. First, that which is grown in the ordinary paddy-fields. This is called specifically *tap-kok*, or paddy-field rice. It is used almost exclusively to make *tap*, the ordinary boiled rice. Then we have *chun-kok*, or field-rice. This is so-called upland rice. It is drier than the paddy-field rice, and is used largely in making rice flour and in brewing beer. The third kind is grown exclusively on the slopes of mountains, and is a wild rice. It is smaller and harder than the other kinds; for this reason it is used to provision garrisons. It will withstand the weather. Under favourable circumstances, lowland rice will keep five years, but the mountain rice will remain perfectly sound for quite ten years.

Next in importance to rice come the different kinds of pulse, under which heading is included all the leguminous plants, the bean and the pea family. That Korea is well provided with this valuable and nutritious form of food will be seen from the fact that there are thirteen species of round beans, two kinds of long bean, and five varieties of mixed bean.

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Of all these numerous assortments, the "horse-bean" is by far the most common. It is the bean which forms such a large part of the exports of Korea. It is supposed by Koreans to have originated in North-Western China, and derives its name from the fact that it is used very largely for fodder. One variety only may be regarded as indigenous — the black-bean — and it is found nowhere else in Eastern Asia. Of the rest, the origin is doubtful. The horse-bean grows in greatest abundance in Kyöng-syang Province and on the island of Quelpart, though of course it is common all over the country. The black-bean flourishes best in Chyöl-la Province. The green-bean, oil-bean, and white-cap bean flourish in Kyöng-keui Province. The yellow bean is found in Hwang-hai Province; the South River bean appears in Chyung-Chyöng Province; the grand-father-bean (so called because of its wrinkles) grows anywhere, but not in large quantities. The brown-bean and chestnut-bean come from Kang-wön Province.

It would be difficult to over-estimate the importance of these different species of pulse to the Korean. They furnish the oily and nitrogenous elements which are lacking in rice. As a diet they are strengthening, the nutritious properties of the soil imparting a tone to the system. Preparations of beans are as numerous as the dishes made from flour; it is impossible to enumerate them. Upon an average, the Koreans eat about one-sixth as much pulse as rice. The price of beans is one-half

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that of rice; the price of either article is liable to variations. There are varieties which cost nearly as much as rice.

The common name for barley is *po-ri*; in poetical parlance the Koreans call barley The Fifth Moon of Autumn, because it is then that it is harvested. The value of barley to the Korean arises from the fact that it is the first grain to germinate in the spring. It carries the people on until the millet and rice crops are ready. Barley and wheat are extensively raised throughout Korea, for the purpose of making wine and beer. In other ways, however, they may be considered almost as important as the different kinds of pulse. The uses of barley are very numerous. Besides being used directly as farinaceous food it becomes malt, medicine, candy, syrup, and furnishes a number of side-dishes. Wheat comes mostly from Pyöng-an Province, only small crops of it appearing in the other Provinces. Barley yields spring and autumn crops, but wheat yields only the winter crop. The poor accept wheat as a substitute for rice, and brew a gruel from it. It is used as a paste; it figures in the native pharmacopœia, and in the sacrifices with which the summer solstice is celebrated.

Oats, millet, and sorghum are other important cereals in Korea. There are six varieties of millet; the price of the finer qualities is the same as that obtained for rice. One only of these six varieties was found originally in the country. Sorghum is grown principally in Kyöng-syang Province. It

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grows freely, however, in the south; but is less used than wheat, millet, or oats in Korea. A curious distinction exists between the sorghum imported from China and the native grain. In China, sorghum is used in making sugar; when this sugar-producing grain arrives in Korea it is found impossible to extract the sugar. Two of the three kinds of sorghum in Korea are native, the third coming from Central China. Oats become a staple food in the more mountainous regions, where rice is never seen; it is dressed like rice. From the stalk the Koreans make a famous paper, which is used in the Palaces of the Emperor. It is cultivated in Kang-won, Ham-kyöng, and Pyöng-an Provinces.

The Korean is omnivorous. Birds of the air, beasts of the field, and fish from the sea, nothing comes amiss to his palate. Dog-meat is in great request at certain seasons; pork and beef with the blood undrained from the carcass, fowls and game — birds cooked with the lights, giblets, head, and claws intact, fish, sun-dried and highly malodorous, all are acceptable to him. Cooking is not always necessary; a species of small fish is preferred raw, dipped into some piquant sauce. Other dainties are dried sea-weed, shrimps, vermicelli, made by the women from buckwheat flour and white of egg, pine seeds, lily bulbs, honey-water, wheat, barley, millet, rice, maize, wild potatoes, and all vegetables of Western and Eastern gardens; and this by no means exhausts the list.

Their excesses make them martyrs to indigestion.



KOREAN NATIVES BUILDING HOUSES

CHAPTER VII

KOREAN SCENERY

THE world of politics in Seoul had become of a sudden so profoundly dull, that, ignoring the advice of the weather-wise inhabitants of the capital, I packed my kit, and hiring ponies, interpreters, and servants, moved from the chief walled city of the Empire into the wild regions of the interior. My journey lay towards Tong-kokai, the German mines, several days' journey from Seoul. Life, in the capital, is not destitute of that monotony which characterises the Land of the Morning Radiance. But beyond the precincts of the Imperial Palaces, out of sight and hearing of the countless little coteries of Europeans, the contrast between the moving, soft-robed, gentle masses of people who congregate within her gates, and the mountain reaches and valleys of the open country is refreshing. For the moment the pleasure of such an experience ranks high among the joys which life holds.

Save in the first few *li* from the capital, we abandoned the beaten tracks, travelling along quiet byways and mountain paths, turning aside at fancy to climb a peak or to take a swim in the cool, deep waters of some secluded pool at night and morn-

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ing, and at our noonday halt. In the pleasant shades of these cool mountains and sunlit valleys the people live in unrebuked simplicity. They offered the loan of charcoal stoves or retailed eggs, chickens, and rice to my servants. At the moment of my bath, youths and youngsters gambolled with me in the stream. It is said that the Koreans are far from clean, a statement they belied upon many occasions by the freedom and enjoyment with which they indulged in these dips. Foreigners had not travelled along the route which my friend and I were following to the German mines, and even the ubiquitous evangelist had not penetrated to these peasant homes. The mountains and rivers had no names; the settlements were small; inns did not exist. Everywhere was contentment, peace, and infinite repose. Nature stood revealed to us in primæval grandeur, and it was impossible not to enjoy the calm of the valleys, the rugged beauty of the mountain crests, the picturesque wildness of the scenery.

As the days passed the general character of the country remained unaltered. The manifold and complex tints in the bush, the differing aspects of each succeeding height, the alternating complexion of the valleys, dissipated the monotony, engendered by the never changing features of the picture — the trees and mountains, hillside hamlets and mountain torrents, precipitous passes and windy plateaux. Moving thus slowly through the mountain passes, a wonderful panorama silently disclosed itself. Hills

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were piled one upon another, gradually merging into chains of mountains, the crests of which, two and three thousand feet in height, stood out clearly defined against an azure sky, their rock-bound faces covered with birch, beech, oak, and pine. The valleys below these mountain chains were long and narrow, cool and cultivated. A hillside torrent dashed through them, tumbling noisily over massive boulders, gradually fretting a new course for itself in the lava *strata*. Countless insects buzzed in the still air; frogs croaked in the marsh meadows; the impudent magpie and the plebeian crow choked and chattered indignantly among the branches of the trees. Cock-pheasants started from the thick cover of the low-lying hills, the dogs pointed the nests of the sitting hens, and does called to their calves among the young bushes. A calm and happy nature revealed itself spontaneously in these fragrant places, undisturbed, luxurious, and unrestrained. The road was rough. Here and there, in keeping with the wild and rugged beauty of the scene, it became the narrow track of the Australasian "gacks," congested with bushes, broken by holes and stones, almost impassable until the coolies made a way.

Across the clattering crystal of the gushing torrent a rustic bridge was flung, the merest makeshift, three feet in width, with a flooring of earth and bush, which bent and swayed upon slender poles, beneath the slightest burden. Some streams were unbridged, and the diminutive ponies splashed through them, gladly cooling their sweating flanks as their drivers

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waded or carried one another to the distant bank. Wild ferns, butterflies, and flowers revelled in these unkempt gardens. The red dog-lily and purple iris glowed against the foliage of the shrubs and bushes. Gigantic butterflies eclipsed the glories of the rainbow; their gorgeous tints blending into harmony with the more subdued plumage of the cranes and storks that floated lazily across the inundated spaces of the paddy-fields. Other birds, with dove-grey, pink, or yellow breasts and black pinions, fished in the streams with raucous cries. The most amazing tints, recalling some of Turner's later pictures, gladdened the eye in these delightful valleys. In the depths of the valleys the mountain torrents flowed more idly, and the stream meandered in a thousand directions. Upon either bank, its volume was diverted to the needs of some adjacent rice-field. In these paddy-patches green and tender shoots were just sprouting above a few inches of clear water. Here and there, fields of wheat bordered these water-soaked stretches; oats, corn, barley, tobacco, cotton, beans, and millet were scattered about the sides and plains of the mountain valleys in a fashion which proclaimed the fertility of the soil.

Everything thrrove, however, and the industry of the workers in the fields was manifested at every turn of the road. Their ingenuity in making the most of available land recalled the valleys which run down to the fiords of Norway, where, as in Korea, patches of cultivated ground are visible at the snow

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level. Here, in these beautiful valleys, perhaps a thousand or fifteen hundred feet up the mountain side, acres of golden crops will be growing in the warm and happy seclusion of some sheltered hollow.

At the turn of the winding track, bordered by the paddy-fields or acres of golden barley, oats, and tobacco, lies a village. It is but a cluster of some dozen straw-thatched hovels, dirty and unprepossessing, but infinitely quaint and picturesque. The walls of the houses are crumbling and stayed up with beams and massive timbers; the latticed windows are papered, the doorways low. A hole in the wall serves the purposes of a chimney; a dog is sleeping in the porch; a pig squeaks, secured with a cord through the ears to a peg in the wall. Cocks and hens are anywhere and everywhere, the family latrine — an open trough, foul and nauseous, used without disgust by all members of the family save the older women-folk, stands upon the verandah. Somewhere, near the outer limits of the small settlement, an erection of poles and straw matting distinguishes the village cesspool, the contents of which are spread over the fields in the proper season.

A glimpse into a house, as one rides through the village, shows a man combing his long hair, a woman beating her husband's clothes or ironing with a bowl heated with charcoal; many naked children, the progeny of child-wives, scarce out of their teens. For the moment the village seems devoid of life. As the clatter of the cavalcade resounds, a child, feeding itself from a basin of rice, emerges from a

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window; a man tumbles to his feet yawning noisily. Women, with infants hanging at their breasts or bearing children strapped to their backs in dirty clothes, the usual naked band of well-developed breast and unwashed back showing, crowd into the streets. All eye the newcomers with indifferent curiosity, until we wish them a plenteous rain — “May the rain come soon, good people.” Then they bend their heads respectfully at the salutation, and instantly become bright and smiling. Winsome children, muddy and naked, offer us flowers, and bowls of water from the streams upon which their elders have settled.

As the road threaded through the mountains, long valleys, widely and richly cultivated, the yellow lustre of the golden crops blazing in the sunlight, lay below. Granite peaks towered upwards, their rugged faces scored by time and tempest, their ragged outlines screened with firs and birch. The still air was laden with the aromatic scent of the pine-woods; the sky was clear and blue. In the distance, snow-white clouds hung in diaphanous festoons about a curve in the mountains. The rough contour broke where the heights were bleakest and most barren. A twist in the broad valley which our road traversed limited the prospect, but the direction lay beneath the shadows of those distant peaks, and the perspective already compensated for the precipitous climb.

Indeed, from a few *li* beyond Chyök-syöng, a magistracy of the fourth class, where the houses are

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roofed with thick slabs of slate supported by heavy beams, where the streets are clean, and where road and river alike make a *détour*, the views by the wayside became increasingly impressive. For mile upon mile we saw no wayfarers. The villages were widely distant; fertile valleys gave place to green-black gorges, without cultivation, peaceful, grandly beautiful, and uninhabitable. The perfect stillness and the wonderful magnificence of the panorama held one spell-bound. There was no change in the character of the scenery until, riding slowly forward, the road dropped from the comfortable shade of a mountain temple into the blazing sunshine of the plain. Pushing forward, the rice and cornfields receded, giving place to the ranges, whose lofty peaks, dressed with their mantling clouds, had been already dimly discerned. Throughout the journey of the next two days the road rose and fell, winding in a steady gradient across the mountain sides.

The march to Tong-ko-kai was laborious, and one day, when within easy distance of the concession in a tiny hamlet, the colour of the slate and granite boulders, nestling among waving bushes, almost unconscious of the outer world and hardly alive to its own existence, an ideal spot in which to pitch the evening camp was found. It was early in the afternoon, but the road ahead looked rough and stony. Our horses were fatigued, the ford had been troublesome, and we were wet, cold, and hungry. Within the bush the shadows were deepening. No one

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knew the site of the next village nor the precise direction in which we were moving, so we halted. That night we snuggled down with our faces to the cliffs. Our horses were tethered in a patch of corn, and the kit, the servants, interpreters, and grooms lay in one confused and hungry tangle round us. Within sound of the deep roar of the river we slept peacefully. Indeed, I am not certain that this one hour when, invigorated by a swim in some mountain pool, refreshed by a slight repast, we rocked in our camp beds, smoking and chatting, looking into the cool black depths of the canopy above us, was not the best that the day held. There was something intensely restful in those long, silent watches. The mighty stillness of the surrounding heights of itself gave a repose, to which the night winds, the murmurs of the running water, and our own physical fatigue insensibly added. It was pleasant to hear the ponies eating; to watch the stars come out, the moon rise; to listen to the bull-frog in the water weeds and the echoes of the song of a peasant, rising and falling among the peaks of the high mountains, until, at length, all sounds had passed away and the great world around us, above us, and below, lay at peace.

CHAPTER VIII

MINING AND HUNTING

NATURE has been active in these regions. There is much limestone and slate formation, some basaltic upheavals, lava boulders, and chain upon chain of granite peaks. To the west of Tong-ko-kai there is the crater of an extinct volcano, but the lava *strata* in the vicinity of the concession are almost completely eroded. The basin of the concession is well watered, cultivated, and populous in places. It is surrounded by ranges three, four, and five thousand feet in height. Korea is very mountainous in the north and hilly in the south. The watershed between the Sea of Japan and the Yellow Sea extends north and south, nearly parallel to the east coast. In a sense this line of mountain ranges is the backbone of the peninsula; the eastern side of the main watershed is narrow and abrupt, while the western is more extended and contains low plains, favourable to agriculture. The general altitude of the peaks varies between five and six thousand feet. A few isolated points in the extreme north are believed to be higher.

The principal mining districts are situated along the courses of the main and the minor watersheds. The famous mining districts of Kang-kyöi, Kap-san,

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and Teh-chang-chin, at present in the occupation of native workmen, occur upon the plateau formed by the junction of the range, which constitutes the northern frontier of the province of Pyöng-an, with the main watershed of the country. The British mines at Eun-san are situated in country pierced by the north-western antilles of the main watershed. The position of the German mines bears a similar relation to the great natural division of the country, upon its eastern side. Many useful minerals are distributed over Korea — gold, silver, lead, copper, iron, coal — but that which yields the richest harvest is gold.

The presence of gold has been known from the earliest times. Knochenhauer, a German geologist, has declared it to exist in every river in the Kingdom. Hitherto, alluvial gold has been the principal yield to native workers. The miners followed the object of their search up the mountain side until they struck veins and lodes, whence much of the alluvial gold was derived. The chief auriferous districts are in the northern half of the country; in which sphere lie the American mine at Un-san, the British mine at Eun-san, and the German mine at Tong-ko-kai.

The original source of Korean gold may be found in the quartz vein, which, in the case of the American mines, is alleged to give exceptionally rich returns. The alluvial deposits, brought down from the veins in the mountain-ridges, have been freely worked by Koreans; and when more scientifically treated

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the yield is satisfactory. The schotter sediments, in the case of the Tong-ko-kai mines, attained a maximum of seventy-five feet in depth, a thickness of sedimentary matter some fifty feet in excess of the usual formation. The concession was granted in 1898. Under it powers were given to a German company to select a place twenty miles long and thirteen miles wide, within two years from the date of signing the contract, for the purpose of working all minerals during a space of twenty-five years, with an annual payment to the Korean Government of twenty-five per cent. on the net profits. The revenues received from these contracts belong to the Imperial Household, passing directly into the private purse of the Sovereign. In the case of the English syndicate, the percentage was compounded for a sum of \$100,000 and an annual payment of a further \$10,000.

The site which the Germans selected for their concession was, at the moment when they assumed control over the areas, the centre of extensive alluvial workings. The native miners strongly objected to the innovation, and prepared to resist the rights of the German company by force. In the end, however, their hostility was overcome by granting them twelve months' additional occupation of the works, and, when Herr Bauer assumed charge as administrative engineer, opposition was already at an end. The district is covered with the remains of old workings in the schotter of the river-bed; they are also to be found in a few places in the

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quartz upon the mountain side. In the absence of the requisite machinery, work upon the concession was necessarily disorganised. Eventually the concession was abandoned, close investigation failing to disclose its possession of any very remunerative quantities. At the time of its withdrawal, the company employed nine Europeans, thirteen Japanese and Chinese, and some three hundred Koreans.

Korean mining is very elementary. The usual methods are "placer" and "crushing" and a process of treatment by fire. A vertical shaft is sunk, with narrow steps cut into its sides, to the level of the reef; the bottom of the shaft is then packed with wood, which is ignited and kept burning for several days. The heated rock becomes very friable and yields readily to the crude implements of the miners. There is great competition to secure the bottom pitch in these shafts; the more intrepid rarely delay their descent until the working has cooled. The quartz is sometimes rubbed to powder and the gold washed out, or it is crushed between huge boulders, washed, re-crushed, and panned again. The gold is then picked out. Until lately there were no places where the gold was tested by other than the most antiquated methods.

Such sanguine hopes have been raised as to the results of the mining in Korea, that it would be as well if the public accepted all statements in regard to these investments with great caution. The results of the development of the various mining

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concessions, now in progress, will be awaited with much interest, and will, it is to be hoped, form a reliable test of the mining possibilities of the country. The returns from the American mines encourage the belief that these possibilities have not been over-estimated; but it has yet to be proved that mining operations can be profitably carried on with Western methods and appliances. The deposits in which gold is found in Korea are irregular, and by no means continuous. To a Korean miner this is of small importance. His outfit costs at the most a few shillings, and his belongings are easily transported to any distance as circumstances demand. A different order of things is essential to a successful installation of Western machinery, and the public require some proof that there is, within workable distance, a sufficient quantity of ore to yield a fair profit on their investments. This has yet to be proved in the case of the British mine; in respect of the German concession, the business resulted in a fiasco. That these mining enterprises should be successful is desirable in the interests of both natives and foreigners. They afford steady employment at a fair wage to thousands of Koreans, at least, part of whose earnings is expended in the purchase of foreign goods. It is perhaps, however, not altogether unfortunate that the Korean Government is averse, at present, to grant further concessions.

During our halt at Tong-ko-kai, one day was spent in climbing the mighty peaks to lofty spots where, at a height of some thousands of feet,

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native prospectors were driving into the granite facing of the mountain in an effort to strike the main reef.

Another day was passed in a hunt across the crests of the ranges after bear and deer. At daybreak, a little after 4 A.M. upon the morning of this excursion, Herr Bauer escorted us to a prospector's hut in the damp recesses of a distant valley, where our beaters, gun-carriers, and hunter-guides had been ordered to rendezvous for a bear hunt. Alas! the Korean cannot bestir himself! His late rising on this occasion delayed our departure from the hut two hours. The sun had risen when the expedition moved off, a motley retinue of professional hunters and beaters accompanying us to the gorge, wherein lay the bear. Hunters and beaters attached themselves to each of us, and we proceeded across the mountain, pursuing a narrow and broken track, which cleft the bare summit of the highest ridges. We climbed up and down and in and out of many sheltered and well-timbered gorges, until the hunters warned us that we were approaching our stations.

The beaters disappeared, making a *détour* of some *li*, to beat up the many crooked twists and turns which the drive took. Hours passed while we, hot, hungry, and athirst, lay hidden in the rank bush awaiting a sight of the quarry. For the first hour no sound broke the serenity of the valley; presently, however, the cries of the beaters came to us, wafted

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from below, or floating lazily from the surrounding heights. At first, only a distant moaning, like the sobbing of a storm among the trees of a forest, broke upon our ears. The strange sounds created much restlessness among the wild wood-pigeons, the cooing doves, and the cheery, chattering magpies. Red-breasted storks rose with disdainful elegance from the shallows of the trickling stream and soared towards other pools. The mists of night rolled away from the valley; the dew disappeared from the matted undergrowth; the sun mounted; the day grew warmer. The blood coursed through our veins as we peered hither and thither, scanning the opposite face of the valley with the keenest vigilance. The beaters were ascending. The harsh cries of their raucous voices broke upon the air. The air vibrated with eerie noises; a spasmodic howling arose from the depths of the valley, where an isolated beater lashed himself into a fever of vociferous discord. Hoarse shouts boomed above us, and echoed against the crags of the gorge. On either side of us, the valley resounded to the labours of the beaters, who, gaining the extreme crests, had now descended, driving everything before them. They approached rapidly, joined by the native hunters, who had now taken up positions upon the rocks which overlooked the place where we were hiding. Our own moment had arrived. Each man fingered his rifle, peering forward as the concluding effort of the beaters burst forth in a hurricane of clamour. We looked and waited, until the conclusion was forced upon us

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that the bear had already long since broken through the lines of his pursuers.

Hunting in general is considered a servile occupation by the Koreans, and the pursuit of the deer, the bear, and the tiger is not a favourite sport among the young bloods of the kingdom. Nobles, except those who belong to a few impoverished families in the extreme northern provinces, and who are reduced to the pastime to supplement their resources, never indulge in it. It is, nevertheless, free to all. There are no game laws, no proscription of arms, and few preserves. There is no interdicted season in any part of the country. The one creature which it is forbidden to destroy is the falcon, whose life is protected by most stringent enactments. The hunting-grounds are almost solely confined to the mountainous districts, and the hunters are a class apart throughout the country. They shift their grounds rapidly and constantly in search of game, living at the expense of any village where they may temporarily lodge in return for the protection from wild animals which their prowess assures to the local population. Their chief weapon is the flint-lock, imported from Japan. The barrel is inlaid with silver, and bound with thin silver bands or strips of tin. This weapon is loaded with iron bullets, similar in size to those contained in a seven-pound shrapnel shell. The charge is ignited from a coil of plaited straw-cord, which is kept alight during the progress of the hunt. The stock is short and light. When the gun is fired, the butt of this curi-

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ous and antique weapon rests against the cheekbone. The faces of many of the hunters, who accompanied us, were scarred below the right eye.

Their dress is characteristic, and they are further distinguished by their boldness, fearlessness, and independent bearing. They adopt, as a uniform, a blue canvas shirt, to which is added a blue or green cotton turban, which is coiled twice through the hair, the torn, frayed end hanging over the forehead. Coloured beads are entwined in this head-dress, and a necklace of similar beads encircles the throat. Chains of seed-beans hang across the breast, to which are fastened the many ingenious contrivances of their calling. The hunters imitate the sounds of various birds and animals very cleverly, particularly those of a pheasant calling to his hen and a doe crying to her calves. The pheasant-call is made from a disc of iron about the size of a sixpenny piece. It resembles the stone of an apricot and is pierced. The decoy used for deer is made from a split bamboo stalk.

Bird-hunters never shoot their quarry upon the wing. They disguise themselves in skins or feathers, bringing down their game from some well-concealed coign of vantage. Deer are hunted during June and July. The hunters form into small parties, and beat up the mountains for several days until their prey is within gunshot. The horns are sold to the native physicians, or exported to China and Japan. When in pursuit of the bear, hunters are more than usually careful to delay firing until

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the effect of their shot is certain. Good prices are fetched by the various parts of a bear. In addition to the proceeds from the pelt, the flesh, fat, sinews, and gall of a bear, supposed to possess certain medicinal properties, sell for their weight in silver. The one royal quadruped associated with Korea, as the white elephant is with Siam, the dromedary with Egypt, the bison with the United States, is the tiger. Unlike the Indian species, that delights in the tropical jungles, this animal is found in Korea in the snow and forests of the north, and as far as the fiftieth parallel. In the mind of the Korean, the tiger is the symbol of fierceness, an emblem of martial pomp and glory. The tiger hunters affect to despise their noble game, and upon occasions they even attack them single-handed with a lance or short sword, assisted by trained dogs. Tigers are sometimes caught in pits, covered with earth and bushes, and filled with stakes. In this condition it is easy to kill them. The hunters eat the meat, selling the skin and bones.

Tiger hunters are exceptionally courageous. Their services are requisitioned by their Government upon occasion in the defence of the Empire. Armed with matchlock, spear and sword, they defeated the French, under Admiral Roze, in 1866, and heroically resisted the advance of the Americans in 1871. In 1901 they were assembled to protect the northern frontier from the incursions of Manchurian bandits.

CHAPTER IX

MONKS AND MONASTERIES

GAME abounds in the region between the German mines and the Diamond Mountains, and as we moved slowly forward to the famous Monastery of Chang-an, many short halts were made in search of birds and deer. Unfortunately, the deer evaded us and it became impossible to put up the pheasants out of the dense growth in the bushes in which they found cover. We had, however, some sport among the wood-pigeon. Korean hunters accompanied us some little distance upon our journey, leaving our caravan when our ways diverged. Beyond the Hai-yong River their track lay to the west into the heart of the mountains; our own continued north-east.

The hardships, experienced in travelling through Korea, were exemplified by the difficulties of our progress. They were intensified, however, by our ignorance of the precise trail, which it was necessary to follow across the heights from Tong-ko-kai to the mountain retreat of the pious monks. The inhabitants of the village of To-chi-dol warned our grooms of the difficulty of taking horses across the Tan-bal-yang Pass, the one barrier, which remained unsurmounted, between the outside world and the

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quiet repose of the first monastery in the Keum-kang-san. Until we enforced our orders with sticks the *mampus* were inclined to give up the enterprise. Their opposition was momentary; the transition from a somewhat angry mood into their usual condition of unruffled composure and high spirits was instantaneous. With untiring energy and patience they encouraged their diminutive ponies to climb the boulders; to twist and wriggle between the clumps of tangled bushes and masses of rock which beset the path, and to scramble across the steps. We followed a dried-up water course at the level of the valley, making the ascent gradually. The climb was severe, and became so steep that the pack-saddles slipped off the backs of the ponies. It occupied our eight animals some four hours, testing the endurance of pony and groom, alike the product of the hills, stout of limb and strong of wind.

The descent from the spirit shrine, in a gap on the crest of the range, was less toilsome. The grooms plaited ropes of green creepers, plucked from the bush, and strung them round the packs. Walking behind the ponies, they held to these cords, thus supporting the animals and preventing the loads and clumsy saddles from reversing the process of the previous scramble. Nevertheless, our path was littered with fragments of our baggage. The contrivance was successful, however, and in the main the little steeds picked their way with an easy accuracy through the cool green woods. The moun-

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tain side was fragrant with innumerable plants, the bush a tangle of magnificent ferns, trees, and shrubs. Oaks, hawthorn, chestnut, birch, and pines grew in crowded splendour; the wild rose, the freckled lily, and a purple orchid embroidered the moss. Beyond the hollows of the hilly woodlands, the crumpled backs of the jagged mountains reared themselves skyward, their proud crests lost in the clouds, soaring silently to a height of five thousand feet. Below in the valley, a wall of granite mountains set up an impenetrable barrier before a noisy river, which until the advent of the rainy season becomes the merest trickle of silver in a lone expanse of river-bed.

Our way led across the river-bed and thence into the centre of the mountains, a journey of one more day, to The Temple of Eternal Rest. After crossing the Tan-bal-yang Pass we delayed, resting at Kal-kan-i. Starting at daybreak, upon the next morning we moved through the Kak-pi Pass, as the sun touched the tops of the mountains, which shut in the narrow valley, across which lay the last stage of the journey. We were nearing the last home of many distressed pilgrims. In a cleft among the mountains the deep curved roofs of many temples might be seen. The air was tremulous with the pleasant jangling of bells, and from a wayside shrine the sweet fumes of incense mingled with the scent of the pines. The calm and seclusion of this spiritual retreat was in itself soothing; as one passed beneath the red gate, that indicates royal patronage, the placid gentleness of the scene was an allure-

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ment to the consolation and protection offered by this Buddhistic asylum.

There are thirty-four monasteries and monastic shrines in the Keum-kang-san, and they are tended by three hundred monks and sixty nuns. Chang-an is the oldest, and has been in existence for some generations. In 515 A.D., during the reign of Popeung, a king of Silla, it was restored by two monks, Yul-sa and Chin-kyo. Other monasteries, akin to this in their romantic setting and picturesque seclusion, are Pyo-un, which, together with Chang-an is situated upon the western slopes, Yu-chom and Sin-ga upon the eastern slopes. These, with thirty others of less importance, excite the most profound interest and enthusiasm among the Koreans, many of whom repeatedly brave the difficulties and fatigues of travel in the Diamond Mountains to visit them.

The four chief monasteries are served by one hundred and seventy monks and thirty nuns. The main temple of Chang-an is a large building, forty-eight feet in height, of the type to which travellers in the East soon become accustomed. The wooden structure is rectangular, with two roofs, deep, curved, and richly carved eaves, the heavy tiled roofs being supported upon teak pillars three feet in circumference. The diamond-cut panels of the doors, which serve as windows, are ornamented with gold, and the lofty ceiling is carved and wrought in rich designs, lavishly gilded and highly coloured in blue, red, green, and gold. Granite steps give access to the temples; the main beams and supports

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of the whole edifice resting upon huge circular slabs of this stone.

On the inner walls of this building there are scenes from the life of Gautama, the apostle of the Buddhistic creed. A gilded image figures as the centre of a golden group of seven past and future godheads, incarnations of the One and sublime Sakya-muni, whose future reappearance is anticipated by the faithful. Brass incense-burners, candlesticks, and a manuscript book of masses in Chinese and Korean characters, resting upon a faded cover of soiled and dusty brocade, furnish the front of the altar. Before this high altar, wonderfully impressive and inspiring in the dim religious light of the vast interior, a priest spends certain hours of the day and night in profound obeisance, intoning, chanting, and gabbling monotonously and with constant genuflections, the words *Na-mu Ami Tabul*. This expression is a phonetic rendering of certain Thibetan words, the meaning of which the Abbot himself was unable to explain; when transcribed in Chinese characters it appears equally unintelligible.

Other temples in this particular monastery are dedicated to The Abode of Virtue, The Four Sages, and The Ten Judges. Within these edifices Sakya-muni and his disciples sit in different attitudes of ineffable abstraction, contemplating gruesome pictures of demons, animals, and the torments awarded in after-life to the wicked. Many of the buildings of Chang-an have been restored within recent years. The work has been completed long since, and the

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spacious courtyards are now well kept. The temples are clean and spotless, the whole monastery bearing witness to the care with which it is maintained.

Besides the more important temples, there are many smaller shrines, set within some forest nook; a stage for the more important religious observances, bell and tablet houses, stables for the ponies of the numerous visitors, a nunnery, and a refectory for the Abbot and monks. There are, in addition, cells for the priests and quarters for the servants. Accommodation is found for the widows, orphans, and the destitute; for the lame, the halt, and the blind; for the aged and forlorn, to whom the monks grant shelter and protection. Besides the Abbot, there were in the monastery some twenty other men, monks, priests, and neophytes, and ten nuns of various ages, ranging from girlhood to wrinkled wisdom.

The establishment derives its revenues from the rent and proceeds of the Church lands, donations from pilgrims and guests, occasional benefactions from the wealthy, and the collections made by the mendicant monks. These latter chant the litanies of Buddha from house to house, and travel throughout the Empire, finding food and lodging by the wayside, to collect the scanty contributions which their solicitations evoke. The four great monasteries are presided over by a member of the community, who is elected annually to the office. Unless his conduct gives rise to dissatisfaction, he is maintained in authority, usually until his death, or transference to some other centre of Buddhistic activity. The

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practices and observances, in these monasteries of the Diamond Mountains, conform to the principles of the religion of Buddha, as nearly as do the customs and manners of our own Church to the varied tenets of Christianity throughout the world.

I confess myself sorely puzzled to discover any substratum of truth in the charges of gross profligacy and irreverence which the agent of an American Missionary Society brings against the monasteries of the Keum-kang-san. Personally, after spending many weeks in the calm seclusion of this monastic region, I prefer to recall the kindness of the monks — their real Christian charity — to the poor and afflicted, to the hungry and sore distressed, as to all who come to them in times of misery and evil. If many of them learn the litanies of their liturgy by heart, if they lack scholarship, if they do not know the meaning of much upon which they spend so many weary hours of their lives, are not these slight things when weighed against their profound humanity, their gentleness to everything which breathes, their benevolence to the old and destitute, their exceeding humility, their wonderful toleration, the quietness and extreme simplicity of their lives, and the humanitarian nature of their interests?

The Monastery of Yu-chom is all peace and quietude. It lies, shut off from all contact with the outer world, within a deep, tree-clad valley of the eastern ranges. It is self-contained, and its whole existence is wrapped up in the mysteries of that faith to

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whose services it is dedicated. There is no booming torrent, such as that which vibrates and thunders through the Chang-an-sa gorge; a subdued babble alone rises from the water, which wells from some rocks deep in the recesses of the prevailing bush. Its appearance is strangely solemn, and it exerts over the daily lives of the coterie of monks, assembled within its walls, an influence that conduces to their extreme asceticism. The atmosphere of repose and seclusion, in which a soul distressed finds so much comfort, broods over the whole community.

The most imposing of the thirty-four Buddhist retreats within the Diamond Mountains is Yuchom-sa. It may be approached from the western side of the Keum-kang-san by climbing the rocky path of the Chang-an-sa gorge, and crossing the watershed through the An-man-chai Pass, 4215 feet in height. The descent is made by a rough and picturesque track through deep woods to the cluster of temples upon the eastern face of the range. Another way, which, after a short *détour* from Chang-an-sa, is an easier route, lies over the Pu-ti-chong Pass, 3700 feet in height; after winding through some miles of forest, it drops directly upon a track, which leads to the gates of the monastery. Each road starts from Chang-an-sa, and the crossing of the mountains must be undertaken by all who wish to visit the monasteries upon the eastern slopes. The journey in either direction can be accomplished within eight hours; the difficulties of the bed of the Chang-an-sa torrent render this route impass-

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able to horses, etc. Lightly-loaded ponies can be taken across the Pu-ti-chong. The hire of coolies is recommended and one Korean dollar for each man is the tariff.

The temples of Yu-chom-sa are very similar to those at Chang-an-sa. They are, however, more numerous and more richly endowed. Before the steps of the main temple there is a small granite pagoda, whose graceful proportions give an element of dignity to the spacious courtyard upon which the principal temples of the monastery abut. The altar of this temple is adorned by a singular piece of wood-carving. Upon the roots of an upturned tree sit or stand fifty-three diminutive figures of Buddha. The monks tell an old-world legend of this strange structure. Many centuries ago, fifty-three priests, who had journeyed from India to Korea to introduce the precepts of Buddha into this ancient land, sat down by a well beneath a spreading tree. Three dragons presently emerged from the depths of the well and attacked the fifty-three, calling to their aid the wind-dragon, who thereupon uprooted the tree. As the fight proceeded, the priests managed to place an image of Buddha upon each root of the tree, converting the whole into an altar, under whose influence the dragons were forced back into their cavernous depths, when huge rocks were piled into the well to shut them up. The monks then founded the monastery, building the main temple above the remains of the vanquished dragons. Upon each side of the fantastic altar-

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piece there is a carved design of lotus leaves several feet in width and height; at the feet of an immense image of the divine Buddha, golden and bejewelled, which graces the centre of the shrine, are several magnificent bronze bowls of vast size, weight, and antiquity. Blue and red silk-gauze draperies, serving the purpose of a screen, hang from the massive beams in the roof.

The figures seen in Korean temples are reproduced in Buddhist temples throughout Asia, the supreme and central form being that of Sakya-muni or Buddha. In the sculpture and artistic development of this, the central figure of their pantheon, there is little, if any, deviation from the conventional traditions of India, Siam, Thibet, and Mongolia. The sage is crouching on his knees with the soles of his feet turned upward to the face; the palms and fingers of his hands pressed together; the eyes are slightly oblique, and the lobes of the ears somewhat bulbous. The throne consists of the open calyx of a lotus flower, the symbol of eternity. The splendour of the figures in the Temple of the Tree of Buddha is noticeable; and the lustre of the heavy gilding gleams from about the altar into the dimness and uncertain light of the vast chamber like the rays of some spiritual fire. Devotional exercises never cease in this House of the Ever-Supreme Lord, the services and constant offering of prayer being taken in turn by the officiating priests. At these moments, when the lonely figure of the priest is seen pleading with the Ever-Supreme Lord, in his most sacred

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Temple and before his most sacred shrine, for the grace of forgiveness, the scene is one of the most extraordinary solemnity. As the chant rises and falls in the great spaces of the hall and the swaying figure rocks in the despair of his passionate self-abandonment, the sympathies and emotions are strangely stirred. The stages of the services are marked by blows upon a bell which the priest holds before him, the while he casts himself upon his face and kneels before the resplendent Buddha.

The chief celebrations of the day and night in Yu-chom-sa are accompanied by the booming of the great bronze bell — an elaborate casting of the fourteenth century — and by the beating of a large circular drum many feet in circumference. Both instruments stand in their own towers in the courtyard. During the minor services, the genuflections of the priests are accompanied by the jarring notes of the small brass bells, which they strike repeatedly with deer-horns. A magnificent figure of Buddha sits in the Temple of the Lotus Blossom, in an attitude of impassive benignity behind a screen of glass, looking solemnly upon the devotions and pious exercises of his faithful attendants. This altar is recessed, the entire shrine being protected by plates of glass, and the offerings of rice, which are presented to the altar for benediction, stand without the screen. Among other temples and shrines at Yu-chom-sa there are the House of Everlasting Life, the Temple of the Water Month, the Temple of People who come from the West. There are fifty monks in

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Yu-chom-sa, twelve nuns, and eight boys who have not yet been admitted to the order. Many of the boys in these monasteries are quite young. Some have been handed over by their parents in extreme infancy, while others have been received out of the wide charity of the Buddhists, and dedicated to the service of the monasteries. These boys appear intelligent. They are taught little beyond the different chants and litanies, with the words of which they soon become familiar. The boys are clean and well fed; but the monks, if equally clean, are more sparing in their diet. Their frugal repast consists of rice and varieties of minced vegetables, cakes of pine nuts glued together with honey, and other cakes of popped rice and honey. The extreme richness of the dishes soon palls upon the palate. While managing to exist, signs of emaciation are noticeable in their bodies and faces. Among the nuns who are attracted to these different monasteries, there are many who have entered the cloister from religious motives, and a few who, alone in the world, find it a convenient spot in which to pass their lives. Neither class, however, encroaches upon the religious and devotional functions of the monks, but lives entirely apart, existing altogether in a world of their own making.

The forms of religion which prevail in Korea to-day are Buddhism, Confucianism, and Shamanism. Statements of ancient Chinese and Japanese writers, and the early Jesuit missionaries, tend to prove that the worship of spirits and demons has

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been the basis of national belief since the earliest times. The god of the hills is even now the most popular deity. Worship of the spirits of heaven and earth, of the invisible powers of the air, of nature, of the morning star, of the guardian genii of the hills and rivers, and of the soil and grain, has been so long practised that, in spite of the influences of Confucianism, and the many centuries in which Buddhism has existed in the land, the actual worship of the great mass of the people has undergone little material alteration. However widespread this leaning of the lower classes towards demonolatry may be, the philosophy of Confucius has been from the fifteenth century the official and fashionable cult in Korea. In its middle period, it attained to that point when a religion, which at first was fostered by the few and has spread gradually until it became absorbed by the people, feels itself firmly established, and emphasises its ascendancy by the bigotry of its assertions, its tolerance, and, crowning triumph of all usurping tenets, by the virulence of its persecution. Confucianism now overspreads the whole peninsula. From the fourth to the fourteenth century, when the religion of the Enlightened One prevailed, it was studied and practised only by the learned classes. Buddhism predominated throughout the southern half of the peninsula, and only partially leavened the northern division of the Empire, where it was unable to combat the teachings of Confucius. Throughout its development, however, Buddhism has exercised a potent influence in

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Korean affairs, which continued until the close of the last dynasty. The power of the bonzes at one time controlled the Court and nullified the decrees of the monarch. During its pristine supremacy it became the strongest and most formidable factor in the education of the country. It wielded unlimited and unrestricted power, while it guided the political and social revolutions of the period. Great respect is still shown to the tenets of Buddhism in Korea. New monasteries and temples are in process of construction — the Buddhist priests of Japan and Korea making common cause against the activities of Western missionaries. All things considered, Buddhism has left such a mark upon the history of the little kingdom that, although the purely ethical character of the teachings of Confucius be acknowledged, Korea must be classed among the Buddhist countries of the earth.

CHAPTER X

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THE peace, piety, and sublime earnestness of the monks of the monasteries of Yu-chom and Chang-an is in startling contrast to the state of things at Shin-ki-sa. The magnificence of Yu-chom-sa, and the charitable benevolence of Chang-an-sa, engender a mood of sympathetic appreciation and toleration towards those, whose lives are dedicated to the service of Buddha, in these isolated retreats of the Diamond Mountains. The spectacle presented by the monastery at the north-eastern base of the Keum-kang-san, however, reveals the existence of certain evils which happily do not disfigure the more important Buddhist centres in this region. It is not time which alone has brought about the disorder; nor would the material decay be so lamentable if the dignity and charm of a picturesque ruin were not lacking. The tone of the monks here is totally different. Everything is neglected, and every one is indifferent to the needs of the temples. A litter of broken tiles lies about the buildings; dirt and dust, the natural consequences of carelessness and neglect, disgrace them within. The spirit of reverence is wanting. The scene is changed.

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Shin-ki is a small monastery. Perhaps its temples have never been comparable with the shrines of Yu-chom-sa in grace and beauty. Nothing, however, can excuse the disorder and neglect of its courtyards, and the slovenliness of the temple service. There seems to be nothing in common between this and those other monasteries, which rest within the heart of the ranges. One looks in vain for the courtly dignity of the aged Abbot of Yu-chom-sa, whose humanitarian spirit was so impressive. The principles of consideration, politeness, and devotion that govern his conduct are sadly lacking in the Abbot, the priests, and monks attached to Shin-ki-sa. The contrast is indeed great. The most painful emotions are excited by the decline which has taken place in the prosperity of the temples. Anger and sorrow fill the soul. As one gazes beyond the temples into the peace and beauty of the valley below, it is as if one were looking across from a place of abomination into another and a better world. The colourless skeleton of the past alone remains, and one longs for the power to restore the fabric to its former self.

In its setting the monastery has caught something of the spirit of nature. If there is any compensating element in its decadence, it is found in the wild beauty of the rugged mountains, which tower above it from across the valley. Beyond their granite faces lie the trials and tribulations of the outer world; once enclosed within their grey embrace the little ironies of life disappear. The hours are cool

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and undisturbed. Primeval forests adorn the deep gullies of the ranges; a flood of colour comes from the open spaces where wild flowers are growing and the tints of the woodland foliage disclose an endless variety of green. In the centre of a patch, cleared of its undergrowth and approached by a path winding through deep woods, is Mum-sa-am. This retreat is given over to the twenty nuns who are associated with Shin-ki-sa. I know nothing of their lives, but from the state of their temples, and the roughness and disorder of their surroundings, it does not appear to me that they, any more than the sixty priests, monks, and boys of the lower monastery, find the tenets of Buddha very elevating, or derive much satisfaction from the surrounding scenery.

The history of our days in the more important monasteries of the Diamond Mountains was uneventful. The anxious care and solicitude of the monks for the welfare of their guests was hourly manifested, and some kindly attention was shown to us at every possible opportunity. Cool and lofty quarters were allotted for our entertainment; the resources of the monastery were placed at our disposal. The Abbot of Chang-an-sa prepared draughts of honey-water and cakes of pine-seeds for our refreshment. Every morning supplies of honey, rice, and flour, and small bundles of fresh vegetables were brought to the table; throughout the day nothing was left undone, which, in the minds of these simple men, would be conducive to our com-

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fort. A deep pool in the tumbling mountain-stream was reserved for our use, and when, in the fresh air of the morning, and again when the cool winds of the evening had tempered the heat of the day, we went to bathe, the Abbot, upon his own initiative, arranged that we should be left in undisturbed possession of the water-hole.

The Temple, which we occupied during our stay at Chang-an-sa, contained The Altar of the Three Buddhas. The building was spacious and impressive. A wide verandah surrounded it, teak pillars supported a massive roof; scrolls and allegorical pictures, illustrating incidents in the life of Buddha, decorated the wall. Layers of oiled paper carpeted the floor; an altar cloth of silk, richly embroidered, small mats, bronze incense bowls and brass candelabra, embellished the altar, in the centre of which was a large gilt image of the Three Buddhas. Every evening at sunset, the monks who officiated in this Temple placed bowls of rice, honey, and pine-seed cakes upon the altar, and lighted the small lamps and candles which illuminated it. Prayers were not always said, nor were the services always the same, the numbers of the monks varying nightly according to the character of the special office. When the services concluded, there were many who found something to attract them in our small encampment. They gathered round the kitchen; they assisted the interpreter to cook, and tasted his dishes. They handled with amazement the cooking utensils of a camp-kitchen, the cutlery of a

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traveller's table. Occasionally, as their increasing familiarity brought about some small degree of intimacy between us, the monks would display their beads and alms-bowls for our inspection, requesting our acceptance of copies of their books in return for photographs of their temples. The intricacies of a camera delighted them, the appearance of a sporting rifle created consternation in their breasts, and they were never tired of swinging in my camp-bed.

Before the camp at Chang-an-sa was shifted to Yu-chom-sa, a fast friendship, engendered by many kindly acts and the uninterrupted expression of a thoughtful consideration for our needs, sprung up between the monks and ourselves. They consulted us about their ailments, which usually took the shape of an acute attack of indigestion or a form of intermittent dysentery. My medicines were limited to some quinine pills, and a bottle of fruit salts; they accepted either prescription with gratitude and much melancholy philosophy. But although they remained always the same well-disposed visitors to our camp, I noted that they did not frequently present themselves as candidates for treatment again. When the moment came for our departure, many small gifts were pressed upon us. For a long time, too, it seemed as if it would be impossible to obtain an account of our indebtedness to the monastery. In the end the persuasion of the interpreter prevailed. When we added to the reckoning a few dollars for the funds of the monastery, the expressions of gratitude and appreciation, to which

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our little gift gave rise, made it almost possible to believe that the kindness and hospitality shown had been all on our side.

Our quarters at Yu-chom-sa were in no sense inferior, and none the less delightful in their situation, to those which we left behind at Chang-an-sa. The guest-house in Yu-chom-sa affords views of the mountain torrent as it dashes through the boulder-strewn, tree-clad slopes of the valley. At Chang-an-sa we camped beneath the protecting eaves of the spacious verandah which surrounds the Temple of The Three Buddhas, avoiding whenever possible any general use of the sacred edifice. In the case of Yu-chom-sa, this diffidence was unnecessary; the building placed at our disposal being that usually set aside for the requirements of those persons of official position who might be visiting the monastery. The apartments were clean, comfortable, and bright. They were hung with tablets, upon which had been inscribed the names and dignities of previous visitors. High walls enclosed the buildings, and massive gates preserved the compound from unexpected intrusion. The life in these encampments is one of ideal peace and happiness. It was possible to work undisturbed and unprovoked by any harrowing influences. Indeed, there was no suggestion of any other existence. We lived in the seclusion of a sanctuary, where mortal misgivings had not penetrated, and where the tribulations, which oppress mankind, were unknown.

Beyond Shin-ki-sa, a journey of fifteen *li*, a well-

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made road leads east north-east to the coast, which it touches at Syöng-chik. The sight and scent of the sea, after the exhausting discomforts of Shin-ki-sa, was peculiarly welcome. Between Yu-chom-sa and Shin-ki-sa the country is intersected with marshes and rice-fields. The difficulties of marching through these bogs and mud-holes greatly impeded the horses. The road by the coast, if rough and stony in places, is at least free from these obstacles, affording a tortuous, but none the less pleasant, course. Wending across basaltic slopes, ascending their smooth surfaces by a series of roughly-hewn steps, it drops to a level of burnished sand. A sweep inland to the west and south-west avoids the rugged spurs of a neighbouring range. The sea licks the white sand with gentle murmurs and the slight breeze scarcely ripples the blue surface, the constant variations, which the golden sands and glittering sea, the open valleys and green hills present, adding to the charm and freshness of the journey. The feeling of isolation, inseparable from travel in regions where the sense of freedom is shut out by a world of enclosing mountains, is at once lost in contact with the ocean and the ships that go down to it. Far out, in the great expanse of the peaceful sea, were fishing-boats, grey junks, hull down upon the horizon, their brown sails bellying spasmodically in the fitful gusts of the breeze. In the shallows off-shore men, brown and naked, dragged for herring and sprat while their children gathered crabs, diving after their victims in the deep pools with screams of delight.

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Around the hovels, in all these clusters of small villages by the waves, men slept in the blazing sunshine. While their lords reposed, the women mended the rents in the nets, or busied themselves in constructing crude traps, with the aid of which their husbands contrived to catch fish. The aspect of these villages upon the beach was not inviting; and they did not compare favourably with any of the inland villages through which we had passed. They were dirty, tumble-down, and untidy; the appearance of the people suggested great personal uncleanness. The air was laden with the smell of fish drying in the sun — of itself a pleasant perfume, smacking of the salt of the sea — but here so mingled with the odours of decaying offal, piles of rubbish, and varieties of fish and seaweed in different stages of decomposition that the condensed effluvium was sickening. The people, however, were neither curious nor unkindly; for the great part they were indifferent, offering baskets of fresh eggs, fish, and chickens readily for sale. The beach by these villages was black with rows of fish, drying, upon the white sand, in the most primitive fashion. The art of smoking fish is unknown, and the careless manner in which the curing is done proves that the treatment has neither principle nor system. Dogs lay upon these rows of fish, fowls fed undisturbed off them, and, in many places, men slept peacefully with a number of them heaped together, to serve as pillows for their weary heads. Where such neglect prevails, it is perhaps not unnatural that much of the disease

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among the Koreans should be attributed to the dried fish which they eat so greedily.

The trade in salted and sun-dried fish is extensive and finds its way all over the kingdom; an overland traffic of considerable importance exists with the capital. Strings or stacks of dried fish are to be seen in every village. Pack ponies, and coolies laden with loads of dried fish, are met upon every road in the kingdom. The pedestrian who "humps his own swag" almost always carries a small stock with him. The parallel industry to the business of curing fish is the operation of making salt from sea water, a pursuit which is conducted in a manner equally rough and casual. In both of these industries there is a crying need for simple technical instruction, as well as for capital, the lack of which hinders the work from achieving any particular success. There is so much fish in the sea along the coast, that, if the catches were properly treated, the beginning of a prosperous export trade could be readily laid. At the present only a bare sufficiency is secured, the days of prosperity not yet having begun to dawn. The industry is completely paralysed by the exactions of the officials; the fishermen, like the peasants, knowing only too well that an immunity from the demands of the *Yamen* is found only in a condition of extreme poverty.

Many fishing villages were passed through in the journey from the Diamond Mountains. Each seemed to reflect the other, the sole difference between them lying in their size, the number of

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fishing-boats drawn up on the beach, the strength and density of their smells. The poverty and squalor of these hamlets was astonishing. The people seemed without spirit, content to live an idle, slatternly existence in sleeping, yawning, and eating by turns. Despite offers of payment, it was impossible to secure their services in a day's fishing, although they generally admitted that the boats, nets, and lines were not otherwise engaged. As the outcome of this spirit of indifference among the natives, Japanese fishermen are rapidly securing for themselves the fishing-grounds off the coast. Unless these dreary, meditative, and dirty people arouse themselves soon, the business of fishing in their own waters will have passed altogether from their hands. The Japanese catch fish at all seasons; the Koreans at one only — when it suits them. They have consequently a diminishing influence in a trade so exceedingly profitable that some ten thousand Japanese fishing-boats subsist by it.

The filthy condition of the villages renders any stay in them perilous. It is wiser to camp beyond them in the open. It was my misfortune to stay in several, but in the village of Wha-ding, seventy-five *li* from Won-san, the virulence and variety of insects surpassed all my experience in Australia, America, Africa, or Asia. Fleas were everywhere; they floated through the atmosphere, much as the north-west winds of New Zealand and the hot winds of Africa drive particles of fine sand through the air. In this case, however, nothing remained without its

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thin penetrating covering of fleas. One night in Wha-ding stands out as the most awful of these experiences. It was impossible to stand; it was impossible to sit; sleep was out of the question. We shook our clothes; we bathed and washed and powdered. Every effort was a torture, and each precaution increased the ironies of the situation. To add to the plagues of this accursed place, we were deafened by the ear-splitting incantations of a sorcerer, who had been hired by the proprietor of the village inn to exorcise a devil that had bewitched him. We wondered, afterwards, whether this accounted for the damnable activity among the vermin. After a futile attempt to come to terms with the magician by bribery and corruption through the medium of my interpreter, it was arranged that one of the grooms should represent the evil spirit. He passed out into the desolation of the night and howled plaintively, while we, having collected the elders and the necromancer, solemnly fired our revolvers into the darkness at the departing spirit. Unfortunately, we did not convince the wizard that the devil had been expelled. It was not until, losing my temper and my reason together, I dropped his gongs and cymbals down a well, depositing him in it after them, that we were rid of the agonies of this additional nuisance.

CHAPTER XI

DROUGHT AND STARVATION

IT is difficult for us to understand how far-reaching may be the evils, resulting from the complete failure of the rainfall, in countries where the population relies upon it for their daily bread. A brief mention, in the Press, of the lateness of the monsoon gives no sign of the anxiety with which many millions of people are regarding the approaching harvest. Water means life to the rice-fields, and a drought implies, not alone the failure of a staple crop, but famine, with disorder and starvation, disease and death, as its accompaniments. A drought in the rice-fields makes a holocaust of the people in the winter. The forces of law and order at the disposal of the Government of India place some restraint upon the populace. In the Far East, where the civil administration is incompetent to deal with the exigencies of the situation, and the systematic dispensation of relief is unknown, the decimation of the population and the complete upheaval of the social fabric follows closely upon the break-down in nature. Indirectly, too, the consequences of famine in India prove this.

An even more emphatic evidence of the effects of a drought, where the population live upon the rice

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crop, is afforded by the appalling loss of life and the grave eruption of disorder, which took place in Korea as the consequence of the famine in 1901. Widespread ruin overtook the country; the inland districts were thronged with mobs of desperate people. Persons, normally peace-loving and law-abiding, banded together to harass the country-side, in the hope of extorting sufficient food to keep their families and themselves from starvation. Hunger drove whole communities from the villages to the towns, where no provision for their welfare existed. Anarchy prevailed throughout the country, the dire needs of the population goading them to desperation. A horde of beggars invaded the capital. Deeds of violence made the streets of Seoul unsafe after darkness fell, and bandits carried on their depredations openly in the Metropolitan Province. From a peaceful and happy land of sunshine and repose, Korea was transformed, in a few months, into a wilderness of misery, poverty, and unrest.

The measures for relief were quite inadequate, and although rice was imported, large numbers of the people, lacking the money with which to buy it, starved to death. The absence of an efficient organisation in the face of this further disaster increased the confusion. Before any arrangements could be made for their relief, several thousands had died. More than 20,000 destitute people were discovered in Seoul, out of a population of rather less than 200,000. Reports from the provincial

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centres disclosed a relapse into a state of absolute savagery in many rural districts. Famine, pestilence, and death stalked abroad in Korea for months, and many, who escaped starvation, lost their lives subsequently in the great wave of disease which swept over the land.

It is impossible to believe that the famine would have assumed its late proportions had the Government of Korea maintained its embargo against the exportation of cereals from the country. There can be no doubt that the withdrawal of this prohibition contributed to the scarceness of the food-stuffs which were procurable by the people, when their straits were most severe. Mortality returns from the areas devastated by the famine prove that the welfare of more than one million persons was affected. The action of Japan, therefore, in insisting upon the suspension of the prohibition in order that the interests of some half-dozen Japanese rice merchants might not suffer, deserves the utmost condemnation. The primary responsibility for this great loss of life rests entirely with the Japanese Government. In terrorising the Government of Korea into an act, the consequences of which brought death to one million people, the Japanese Government committed themselves to a policy which traversed alike the dictates of reason and common sense, and outraged every principle of humanity. The impartial observer must hold Korea guiltless in this matter. It is, indeed, deplorable that the vehement opposition of the Korean Government was not respected.

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Nevertheless, the incident is valuable, as an illustration of the objectionable attitude which at one time distinguished the Government of Japan in its relations with Korea.

At the beginning of the drought the inhabitants of Seoul believed that the Rain God was incensed. The Emperor and his Court offered expiatory sacrifices upon three occasions. As the rains were still withheld a period of penance was proclaimed, in which prayers and fastings were ordained, the populace ceasing from every form of labour and relapsing into a condition of supreme idleness. Unhappily, while the great mass of the people refrained from work, the Emperor continued to employ many hundreds of labourers upon the construction of the new Palace buildings. This proceeding was held by the superstitious subjects of His Majesty to account for the singular inclemency of the Rain Demon, and some anxiety was felt in the capital lest the usual calm of the city should be broken by riots. These horrors were spared to Seoul, however, by the fortuitous visitation of a passing shower. Men and women resumed their toil, rejoicing in the belief that the evil influences had been overcome. It was, however, but a brief respite only that was granted. In a short time the drought prevailed throughout the land, drying up the rice-fields, scorching the pastures, and withering the crops. Under this baneful visitation, the circumstances of the people became very straitened. Hundreds were reduced to feeding on the wild roots

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and grass of the wayside, and isolated cases of cannibalism were reported.

In a rice-growing country such as this is, it is essential that an adequate supply of rain should fall during the three summer months to allow of the seed-rice being transplanted and to ensure the maturing of the grain. In 1901, owing to the lack of water, the bulk of the seed-rice was never transplanted at all. It simply withered away.

It is, of course, inevitable that one of the immediate results of famine should be a general increase of mortality throughout the country. The impoverished condition, to which so many thousands of Koreans were reduced, weakened their constitutions so seriously that, in many cases, even those who were fortunate enough to escape starvation found their powers fatally impaired. There were many whose inanition and general debility, resulting from their deprivations, had rendered them peculiarly susceptible to disease. More particularly was this the case in the inland districts.

Under normal conditions, malaria is, perhaps, the most common disease in Korea. It prevails in all parts of the country, but it is specifically localised in sections where there are numerous rice-fields. Small-pox is nearly always present, breaking out in epidemic form every few years. Nearly all adults, and most children over ten years, will be found to have had it. Leprosy is fairly prevalent in the southern provinces, but it spreads very slowly. While this disease presents all the characteristics

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described in the text-books, the almost imperceptible increase, which distinguishes its existence in Korea, is strong presumptive evidence that it is non-infectious.

The great enemy of health is the tubercle bacillus. The want of ventilation, the absence of sanitation, and the smallness of the houses, foster this little germ. Tubercular and joint diseases are common; also fistula, hare-lip, diseases of the eye, throat, and ear. The most common disease of the eye is cataract; of the ear, suppuration of the middle drum, in the great majority of cases the result of small-pox in childhood. Cases of nasal polypi are also very numerous. Hysteria is fairly common, while epilepsy and paralysis are among other nervous disorders which are encountered. Indigestion is almost a national curse, the habit of eating rapidly large quantities of boiled rice and raw fish promoting this scourge. Toothache is less frequent than in other countries; diphtheria and typhoid are very rare, and scarlet fever scarcely exists. Typhus, malarial remittent fever, and relapsing fever are not uncommon. Venereal disease is about as general as it used to be in England.

In short, there is a preponderance of diseases which result from filthy habits, as also of those produced by the indifferent qualities of the food, and the small and overcrowded houses. Most of the diseases common to humanity present themselves for treatment in Korea.

CHAPTER XII

THE MISSIONARY QUESTION

THE history of missionary enterprise in Korea abounds in illustrations of the remarkable manner in which French missionaries may be relied upon to offer up their lives for their country. It may be cynical to say so, yet there is much reason to believe that the Roman Catholic priests in the Far East of to-day are the *agents provocateurs* of their Government. They promote anarchy and outrage, even encompassing their own deaths, whenever the interests of their country demand it. From the beginnings of Christianity in China they have wooed the glory of martyrdom, and they have repeated the process in Korea.

Christianity made its way into Korea about 1777, by the chance arrival of a packet of translations in Chinese of the works of the Jesuits in Peking. From this small beginning the ideas spread, until the King's Preceptor was compelled to fulminate a public document against this new belief. Finding this insufficient, examples were made of prominent enthusiasts. Many were tortured; and others condemned to perpetual exile. Persecution continued until 1787; but the work of proselytism proceeded, despite the injurious attentions

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which converts received from the public executioners.

The first attempt of a foreign missionary to enter Korea was made in 1791. It was not until three years later, however, that any Western evangelist succeeded in evading the vigilance of the border sentinels. Where one came others naturally followed, undeterred by the violent deaths which so many of these intrepid Christians had suffered. While the French missionaries were prosecuting their perilous labours, in the face of the undisguised hostility of the great proportion of the people, and losing their lives as the price of this work, the walls of isolation which Korea had built around herself were gradually sapped. Ships from France, Russia, and Great Britain touched her shores during their explorations and trading ventures in the Yellow Sea. Under the association of ideas which sprang from the appearance of these strange ships, the Koreans grew accustomed to the notion that their world was not limited by the resources of their own country and the more distant territories of China. However, judging the sailors who fell into their hands by the standards of the French priests, who had set every law in the land at defiance, they at once killed them. This practice continued until 1866, when word reached the Admiral of a French squadron at Tientsin of the slaughter of his compatriots in Korea. Upon the receipt of the news, an expedition was prepared, of itself an early manifestation of that policy by which the French Government is

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inspired in its dealings with missionaries and missionary questions in countries, the development of whose geographical or industrial peculiarities may be turned to advantage.

For many centuries the land was without any accepted religious doctrine. Buddhism, which existed for one thousand years before the present dynasty came to the throne, had fallen into disfavour; the tenets of Confucius did not completely satisfy the minds of the upper classes, and Shamanism was the worship of the more primitive masses. The moment was ripe for the introduction of a more practical philosophy, and in time, as the gospel of Christianity spread, opposition to the great creed of humanitarianism lessened. Toleration of the many phases of Western belief is now general, the Korean finding in the profession of Christianity an easy means of evading the exactions of the officials. Nevertheless, the diffusion of Christianity is not unattended with bloodshed and disaster. Apart from this drawback to the propagation of Christian beliefs in Korea, it may be doubted whether the methods of the various missionary bodies bear the impress of that spirit of charity which should illustrate their teaching. Without impugning the individual attainments of any of the many missionary groups who administer to the needs of the Koreans, I find it difficult to affirm that the principles of self-abnegation so manifest in the lives of the Roman Catholic priests and the workers of the Church of England Mission are equally in evidence in the

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comfortable existence which is led by the well-paid *attachés* of the American Mission Boards. The French priests live in abject poverty; striving to identify themselves with the conditions of their flock, they accept neither holiday nor reward as compensation for their services. In this bare comparison of the principles of ministration, I do not wish, at the moment, to venture into the domain of controversy, but merely to convey some impression of the competing systems of procedure.

The Church of England Mission, which has become known as the English Mission, under the direction of Bishop Corfe has adopted a system of communism. The expenses of board, lodging, clothing, laundry, and fuel are met from a common fund, quarterly remitted from the Mission Treasurer to the responsible head of each Mission House. In proportion to the number of residents, the expenditure is returnable upon a *pro rata* calculation of about £70 per head per annum. This estimate includes the cost of the male staff. The proportionate rate of expenditure in respect of the lady workers of the English Mission is one-third of this annual disbursement less. The *dépôts* of the Mission are situated at Seoul, Chemulpo, Mok-po, and Kang-wha; in addition to the stations in Korea, a chaplaincy is maintained in New-chwang. The chief centre of activity of this Mission is upon the island of Kang-wha. The task of improving the condition of the very poor, by means of education, kindness, and patience, proceeds quietly at Che-

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mulpo and Seoul too, where particular attention is given to the welfare of the sick. At one time, there were important dispensary and hospital institutes in these places; the medical establishment at Chemulpo, however, is now abandoned.

The members of this Mission endure no little privation in the primitive simplicity of their surroundings. Their services, on the other hand, display much unnecessary pomp; and the white, full-skirted cassock with rough hempen girdle, which they wear in public and private, emphasises their ritualistic tendencies, and is, to my mind, somewhat of an affectation. Nevertheless, in their daily practice, those associated with the Church of England Mission in Korea set before themselves that standard of idealism in missionary enterprise which is represented by the unnecessary sacrifices, the sublime heroism, and fortitude distinguishing the priests of the Roman Catholic Church, a standard, I am compelled to admit, that other missions in the Far East — American, English, Scotch, and Irish — appear incapable of realising.

The American missionary in the Far East is a curious creature. He represents a union of devices which have made him a factor of considerable commercial importance. American missionaries in Korea were formerly closely associated with the more important export houses in the leading industrial centres of America. Owing to diplomatic representation this practical demonstration of Western superiority is no longer openly indulged. In Seoul,

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however, an American missionary inconsiderately receives paying guests, causing a manifest loss of business to the Station Hotel; in Won-san, another exploits his orchard. As a class they are necessarily newspaper correspondents and professional photographers; upon rare occasions — and here I refer especially to a small coterie of American missionaries in Seoul — they are the scholarly students of the history, manners, customs, and language of the country in which they happen to be placed.

The American missionary has a salary which frequently exceeds £200 a year, and is invariably pleasantly supplemented by additional allowances. Houses and servants are provided free, or grants are made for house rent; there is a provision for the education of the children, and an annual capitation payment is made for each child. As a class, American missionaries have large families, who live in comparative idleness and luxury. In Korea, they own the most attractive and commodious houses in the foreign settlements, and appear to me to extract from their surroundings the maximum of profit for the minimum of labour. I do not know whether it is with the permission of the executive officers of the American Mission Boards that their representatives combine commerce with their mission to the heathen. When a missionary devotes no little portion of his time to literary labours, to the care of an insurance agency, to the needs of a fruit farm, or to the manifold exigencies of casual com-

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merce, it seems to me that the interests of those who sit in darkness must suffer.

American mission agents have made Korea their peculiar field. Converts, who prattle of Christianity in a marked American accent, are among the features of the capital in the twentieth century. Mission centres, which have been created in a number of places, now show signs of prosperity. They enlist no little practical sympathy and support from the native population. The self-supporting character of much of the missionary work in Korea bears out the spirit of toleration which distinguishes the attitude of the people towards the propaganda. It is not to be supposed that the work of the missionaries is agreeable to all shades of native opinion. Riots and bloodshed disfigure the path of proselytism, the credulity of the natives entailing heavy sacrifices of life. The disturbances which have thus marked the spread of Christianity in Korea, notably in the anti-Christian rising in Quelpart, a few years ago, are due to the jealousy with which the heathen mass of the population regard the protection from official capacity, enjoyed by those who accept The Light.

In the case of Quelpart, this feeling of animosity, and the immunity from taxation which the French priests gave to their following, created an intolerable position. Anarchy swept over the island, and some six hundred believers were summarily put to death. Whatever may be the compensating advantages of this martyrdom, the reckless and profligate

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sacrifice of life, which missionary indiscretion in the Far East has promoted, is an outrage upon modern civilisation. We have passed through one terrible anti-Christian upheaval in China, and, if we wish to avoid another such manifestation, it is necessary to superintend all forms of missionary enterprise more closely. This, however, can be done only by legislative supervision, imposing restraint in the direction which recent events have indicated. It is imperative that certain measures should be adopted in missionary work which will ensure the safety of the individual zealot, and be agreeable to the general comfort of the community. It is unfortunate, but inevitable, that such reforms must be radical. The violence of missionary enterprise during recent years has been altogether unbridled. The great activity of the different societies, resulting from their unrestricted liberty, has recoiled most fatally upon the more indefatigable, as well as upon the heads of many wholly innocent of any unwarrantable religious persecution. The time has come, therefore, when vigorous restrictions should chasten this vigorous, polemical proselytism. The practice of scattering missionaries broadcast over the interior of these Far Eastern countries should not continue; the assent of the local Consul and a representative council of the Foreign Ministers should be required in every case. Moreover, it would be wiser, if, under no conceivable circumstances, single women were permitted to proselytise beyond the carefully prescribed treaty limits of the different settlements.

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Again, missionaries with families, as well as single women, should not be allowed to live beyond the areas of these neutral zones.

These restraints upon missionary labours will, of course, be resented. If the total number of lives which have been lost in Korea, China, and Japan, by the interference of Western missionaries, were published, their vast aggregate would reveal to the unthinking masses of the public how urgent is the need for strong action. Such restraint is morally justifiable by the appalling massacres with which the world is now familiar. The blind perseverance of the missionary has frequently brought about the simultaneous baptism and crucifixion of the convert. What more does the fanatical enthusiast wish than that some one should be thus doubly glorified by his means? The increasing death-roll among masters and pupils supplies the only necessary argument for immediate rectification of the entire system of missionary enterprise.

CHAPTER XIII

TRAVELLING IN KOREA

TRAVELLING in the inland regions of Korea is not the most comfortable pastime which can be devised, although it has many attractions. The lively bustle of the roads gradually gives place to the passing panorama of the scenery, which presents in constant variation a landscape of much natural beauty, with hills and meadows, bush-clad mountains and rice-fields, rivers, lakes, and raging torrents as prominent features. The shifting camp soon leaves the outposts of civilisation behind. This slow passing into the wilderness gives a subtle charm to the journey. Each turn of the track emphasises the desolation of the ever-changing scene. The wide expanse of plains and valleys makes way for the depths of wild and gloomy forests, where the ragged mountain-paths are slippery and dangerous. The ozone of a new life pervades the air. There is no doubt that such moments seem, for the time, the most perfect existence imaginable. Freedom is untrammelled by a care; the world for the day is comprised within a space as great as can be seen. Upon the morrow, its limitation is only a little more remote. The birds of the air, the beasts of the field, the game in the bushes,

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supply the provender of the camp. Villages provide rice, vegetables, and eggs, the hillside springs give water, the rivers permit bathing. The air is pure, and the whole aspect of life is beautiful and joyous.

At the end of a trying day, one, perhaps, marred by an accident to an animal, trouble with the native servants, rain, fog, or the difficulties of the track, there is the evening camp. Those hours of rest and idleness, when the horses are fed and groomed, packs unswung, the camp-beds slung beneath the mosquito curtains, and the evening meal prepared are full of a supreme sensation of contentment. I have always loved these moments of peace, accepting what they brought as the best that life held for me at the time. At such an hour the refinements of civilisation and the restrictions of convention seem puerile enough. Moreover, there is much material benefit to be derived from such an undertaking. The trials and difficulties develop stability of character; the risks and dangers promote resource and self-reliance. There is much to be learnt from this contact with a human nature differing so radically from the prescribed types and patterns of the Western standard. There is something new in every phase of the experience. If it be only an impression, such as I have endeavoured to trace in these few lines, it is one which lingers in the mind long after other memories have faded.

Preparation for an inland journey of any extent takes a considerable time; ponies have to be hired,

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servants engaged, and interpreters secured. It is as well to personally examine the pack ponies which are to carry the loads. Koreans treat their animals shamefully, and the missionaries make no efforts to lighten the lot of these unhappy beasts. In consequence of the carelessness with which the ponies are treated by their Korean masters, the poor little brutes suffer from back-sores larger and more dreadful than anything I have seen in any other part of the globe. If the Koreans could be taught the rudiments of horse-mastering and a more humane principle of loading and packing their rough saddles, as well as some practical veterinary knowledge, the lot of the unlucky little pony of the capital might be softened. But the spectacle of broken knees, raw necks, bleeding backs, and sore heels which these poor animals present, as they pass in quick succession along the streets of Seoul, is revolting. The American missionaries boast so much of their good deeds that it seems strange that they should neglect such a crying evil as this. There is, I presume, no credit to be "gotten" from alleviating the sufferings of a mere, broken-down, Korean pack pony.

Large numbers of the pack ponies of Korea come from Quelpart. They are diminutive in size, little larger than the Shetland breed, and rather smaller than the Welsh pony. They are usually stallions, given to fighting and kicking amongst themselves, and reputed savage. Their wildness is aggravated through a daily irritation by the rough surfaces of

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their pack saddles of the inflamed swellings on their backs. They endure longer marches and shorter food allowances than almost any other species of horse; they are quick in their gait, very strong and willing, good feeders, and reveal extraordinary obstinacy, tenacity, and patience. Much of the pleasure in my travels in Korea, however, was entirely spoiled by the abominable neglect with which the native grooms treated their charges. Their dreadful condition goaded one to fury, and almost daily I remonstrated with one or other of the grooms for gross cruelty. My remarks had not the smallest effect, however, save that they wore me out, and in the end I abandoned my expeditions to avoid the horrors of such spectacles. The Korean is quite callous to the sufferings of his animals. He will feed them well, and he will willingly disturb himself at night to prepare their food; but he will not allow ulcerated and running wounds to interfere with the daily work of the poor beasts. This is comprehensible; but he will not, upon his own initiative, even endeavour to bridge the sore by the tricky placing of a pad. However bad the gathering may be, on goes the load, the agony of the poor pony manifesting itself in a flourish of kicks, bites, and squeals.

In demonstration of this extreme callousness I may mention this incident. Once, outside Wonsan, I saw a Korean seat himself upon the side of a stone, and leisurely proceed to rain blows upon the head of a dog which he was holding, until the poor thing collapsed insensible. He then beat it

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about the ribs, and put the body on the embers of a fire. We were several hundred yards off when this attracted my notice; but I chased the brute across two paddy stretches, until the heavy going compelled me to abandon it. At a later time I noticed that the grooms were most careful to dress the backs of the horses at our different halts, and also to endeavour to prevent the pack saddles from rubbing the wounds, prompted, I have no doubt, to this most desirable kindness by the lesson which they had read between the lines upon the occasion of the dog incident.

The character of the native followers who accompany these journeys is a matter of great importance to the future welfare of the traveller. The proprietor of the Station Hotel, Seoul, secured me an excellent boy. Shortly after entering my service, an American missionary, who had been hankering after the lad for some time before he was brought to me, suborned him. He deserted me upon the eve of my second expedition. This trick is seldom perpetrated east of Suez between Europeans with native servants; it is one of the few unwritten laws of the East and observed everywhere. I reported the matter to the American Minister, Dr. Allen, but the missionary kept the boy. Servants, grooms, and a coolie of a sort, are all necessary upon these expeditions; one groom to each horse is a wise allowance. Koreans like to send three horses to two men; however, my division is the better. Europeans require a boy-servant, who will look after the personal effects

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of his master, and wait at table. An interpreter, who can speak Chinese, and some European language, either German, French, or English, is invaluable. It is safer in each case to take men who are not converts. A coolie is useful and gives a little variety to the beasts of burden; he carries the camera, water-bottles, and small impedimenta of the hour. A *chef* is not really necessary — my interpreter voluntarily served as cook. The interpreter in any journey inland should be mounted; it saves considerable friction if the personal servants be allowed to ride on the baggage ponies. Interpreters receive from thirty to forty dollars a month; personal servants from eight to twenty dollars a month; coolies from eight to ten dollars a month. The hire for the horses, with whom the grooms are included, is a dollar a day, half the amount paid down in advance upon the day of starting. All calculations are made in Korean currency. The entire staff, except the horses and grooms, is fed by the traveller. The interpreter takes charge of the accounts. He will, if ordered, take down the Chinese and Korean names of the villages, streams, lakes, valleys, plains, mountains, and roads which are passed. This is useful; the map of Korea is most hopelessly out of date, and by forwarding these names to the Geographical Society some little good is accomplished. The interpreter will pay the coolies, grooms, and other servants in debased currency, and charge the account in Mexican dollars, making a profit of seventy-five per cent.; he is greedy and tenacious to the inter-

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ests of his pocket, and he will suggest that he requires a servant. For this remark he should be flogged. He will muddle his accounts whenever he can; he will lose receipts if he can find no other way of squeezing. He is apparently an innocent, transparently honest, and devoted to the principles of sobriety and virtue — unless there is an opportunity to go the usual path. Under every condition he should be watched.

The Korean does not approach the Chinaman as a body-servant; he has neither the initiative nor the capacity for the work, while he combines intemperance, immorality, and laziness in varying degrees. The master usually ends by waiting upon his man. There is, however, an antidote to this state of things. If sufficient point be put into the argument, and the demonstration be further enforced by an occasional kick, as circumstances may require, it is possible to convert a first-class, sun-loving wastrel into a willing, if unintelligent, servant. Under any conditions, his dishonesty will be incorrigible.

It is never necessary to take any large stock of provisions when travelling in Korea. Eggs, fowl, fresh fish, fruit, matches, tobacco, vegetables, and crushed rice flour can be procured at any village in large quantities. The inhabitants will perhaps declare that there are no such things in the village; that they are miserably poor. The village usually bears the stamp of its condition pretty plainly, and I found that where this occurred the most effectual remedy was to call up the oldest man visible, to

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offer him a cigarette, to calm him down, and then to give the interpreter some money and to send off the pair of them. Once this system failed in a flea-infested hole on the west coast, where the village inn had no stables, and I really thought there were no fowls; of a sudden, as though satirising the expression of regret of several villagers, two fowls fluttered over a wall into the road. The meeting broke up in confusion. The grooms, the servants, and the interpreter at once tackled the mob, laying about them with their whips; little damage was done, but considerable commotion ensued, and stables, fowls, and eggs were at once forthcoming and as promptly paid for. In regard to payments made to the villagers, it is as well to make certain that the grooms pay for the horses' accommodation; if they can avoid it they will do so, and a memory of this lingering in the mind of the inn-keeper makes him shut his door when the next foreigner is passing. But, in a general way, if everything is paid for, anything is procurable — even crockery and charcoal stoves, at a pinch, when the difficulties of the precipitous track have played unusual havoc in the china basket.

In the routine of the march, it is pleasant to camp beyond the village for the noonday halt; near the river, if the weather permits bathing. The food can be prepared in the sunlight under some trees. This picnic halt gives an agreeable change from the native inn, over which the missionaries wail perpetually; it is, indeed, always to be avoided. I was

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several times in Korean inns, driven in by some sudden and temporary downpour, which cut off my retreat. The evening camp made me independent of them in general; every evening the interpreter found the cleanest-looking private house and bargained with its proprietor to let two rooms for the time of my visit. The arrangement was never refused, nor was I ever subjected to rudeness or to any insult upon these occasions. The family would freely help my servants, and when the grooms had removed themselves and their horses to the inn stables, no one was disturbed. The boy prepared breakfast in the morning. The space allotted to us was always ample for my camp-bed, kit, and mosquito curtains. It opened, as a rule, upon the courtyard, around which the house is built. There was plenty of air, as one side was open; the flooring was of thick timbers, raised from the ground. If the weather proved inclement the place afforded warmth and shelter. Moreover, this system has much to commend it on the score of cleanliness; the price paid by me, half a dollar, for the rooms was of course usually double the price which had been arranged. Occasionally while travelling, when these private houses were unprocurable, other makeshifts had to be adopted, an open encampment or the official quarters at the *Yamen*. This latter place was inconvenient, and we always accepted anything of a private nature rather than venture into the *Yamen* or the inn. Many nights were passed upon the verandahs of these houses, with a private room

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leading from it at the back, in case it became necessary. Our beds were pitched as much in the open as possible, the silent beauty of the night hours quite justifying the measure. Many nights I undressed upon the edge of the street, my camp-bed pitched beneath a verandah, a peaceful and inoffensive crowd of Koreans smoking and watching me a few feet off. I would get into my sleeping-suit, roll into my camp-bed, and close the mosquito curtains, upon which the crowd would quietly disperse. As publicity was unavoidable, and it was useless to object, it was easier to accept the situation than to struggle with the curiosity of the spectators.

It is always well to dispense with everything which can be discarded. A camp-bed well off the ground, and more strongly made than those of the usual American pattern, is essential; a field-kit canvas valise, the Wolseley pattern, containing a pocket at either end, with a cork mattress, is also indispensable. It will carry all personal effects. Flannel shirts, towels, socks, and the like, including a book or two, writing materials, mackintosh sheets, mosquito curtains, and insect-powder are all which need to be included. Fresh mint is useful against fleas if thrown about near the sleeping things in little heaps. It is an invaluable remedy and usually effective, though, by the way, I found the fleas and bugs in the houses of New York and Philadelphia infinitely less amenable to such treatment than any I came across in Korea during my stay there. A camera, a colonial saddle, Zeiss glasses, a shot-gun, a sporting-

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rifle, a revolver, a hunting-knife, and a large vulcanite water-bottle are necessary. A supply of sparklets is to be recommended; these articles, with a coil of rope, balls of string, jam, cocoa, tea, sugar, alcohol, potted meats, tinned fruits, and biscuits, enamelled ware eating and cooking things, with a few toilet accessories, completed my materials. It is good policy to take a small hamper of wines and luxuries, in case the opportunity occurs of extending hospitality to an official or some other travelling European. They are very serviceable among the officials. Native tobacco is light, mild, and easily smokable. I carried a pouch of it invariably. Canvas valises of the service type are better than any kind of a box. With this arrangement there are no corners or sharp edges to hurt the horses, and as a load, too, they do not make such hard, unyielding objects against the side of a horse as any leather, tin, or wooden contrivance. My bed and field-kit just balanced upon one pony; my provisions and servants' baggage fitted another. There was one spare pony. The interpreter and myself rode; the servants were mounted upon the baggage animals, the coolie walked.

At one time, when I was travelling with a German friend, our retinue was exceedingly numerous; we each had our personal establishment and a combined staff for the expedition. This, however, is not quite the way to rough it. It was, moreover, comparatively expensive and a bother, inasmuch that so large a cavalcade required no little managing.

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There was, however, something luxurious and enjoyable in that procession across Korea, although it is not the plan to be adopted in general.

There was little further to be accomplished by me in Korea. My journey overland had taken me from Fusan to Seoul and again from Seoul to Wonsan, my examination of the inland and coast centres of mining and industry was concluded: the beauties of the Diamond Mountains, with their Buddhist monasteries, had been studied. At the end of these labours, I was weary and ill at ease; moreover, the time was approaching when my long journey overland from Seoul, the ancient capital of Korea, to Vladivostock, the seat of Russian authority upon the Pacific coast, would have to be begun. The heat in Seoul had been most oppressive, when one day Mr. Gubbins, the British Minister, suggested a short spell of rest and recuperation upon an island a few miles up the Han River. Before nightfall, my staff and I were floating, with the turn of the tide, up the estuary of the river. Sea breezes blew over the mighty expanse of the smoothly gliding waters, and the burden of weariness which had been depressing me, lightened under the influence of these gusty winds and the freshening air from the harbour. The change from the hot and stuffy surroundings of the capital, where the crowds had ceased to be attractive and domestic bothers, arising from the preparation for my Vladivostock journey, had begun to jar upon the nerves, was most entrancing. When the moon burst out from behind a blackened can-

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opy of cloud, as we sailed easily against the rapid current of the river, the rugged outline of the cliffs across the waters proved the reality of the transformation. During the small hours of the night I lay awake, playing with the bubbles and froth of the water in sweet contentment. I resolved to dally for a few days upon the small islands in the stream, halting in the heat of the sun and moving forward at night or in the twilight, when sea-birds could be killed for the pot and fish dragged from their cool depths for the breakfast dish. How delightful were the plunges into that swift current; and how often they were taken in the cool shade of some island backwater! Care and anxiety dropped away in those days of idle frolic, giving the mind, worn by the strain of many months of travel and the hardship of two campaigns, opportunity to recover its vigour. Then came some pleasant weeks in the island monastery, where, from a Buddhist haunt, perched high upon a lofty peak on Kang-wha, mile upon mile of smiling scenery lay open to inspection from my chamber window.

The salt water estuary of the Han is tempestuous and deep, given over to much shipping and small craft. The river itself does not begin for twenty miles above the tide-water mouth, the intervening stretch of water belonging more correctly to the sea. Above Chemulpo, where the full force of the Han current is hardly felt, the velocity of the stream is quite five knots an hour. Where the breadth of the river narrows the rapidity of the flow increases.

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At a point, where the river makes a sudden sweep round some overhanging bluffs, which confront each other from opposite banks, the heavy volume of water thus tumbling down becomes a swirling, boisterous mill-race, as it twists and foams through its tortuous channels into another tide-swollen reach. The place of meeting between the sea and the river current shows itself in a line of choppy water, neither rough nor smooth. The water is always bubbling and always breaking at this point, in a manner poetically suggestive of the spirits of the restless deep. The Han River gives access to Seoul. In the days before the railway, the choice of route to the capital lay between spending a night aground upon one of the many shifting sand-banks in the river or the risks of a belated journey overland, with pack ponies and the delights of a sand-bath in the Little Sahara. There were many who found the "all land" way preferable to the "land and water system," to which many groundings and much wading reduced the experiment of travelling by junk or steam-launch in those days. Now, however, the iron horse rules the road.

CHAPTER XIV

RESTING IN KANG-WHA

KANG-WHA, the island to which I was sailing in these easy stages, lies in the north-east quarter of the gulf, formed by the right angle which the coast makes before taking that northerly sweep which carries it, with a curve, to the mouth of the Yalu River. On the south and south-west, Kang-wha is exposed to the open sea; on the north, the island is separated from the mainland by the Han estuary; and on the east a narrow strait, scarce two hundred yards wide, through which boats, journeying from Chemulpo to Seoul, must travel, severs the island from the mainland.

The geographical features of the island include four clearly defined ranges of mountains, with peaks attaining an altitude of some two thousand feet. Broad and fertile valleys, running from east to west, separate these ranges, the agricultural industry of the population being conducted in their open spaces. The villages and farmsteads, in which the farming population dwell, are folded away in little hollows along the sides of the valleys, securing shelter and protection from the severity of the winter. Many hundred acres of the flats, which form the approaches to these valleys from the coast, have been reclaimed

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from the sea during the last two centuries, the erection of sea dykes of considerable length and immense strength having proceeded apace. But for these heavy earthworks, what is now a flourishing agricultural area would be nothing but a sea of mud washed by every spring tide. The continuous encroachment of the sea threatened at one time the extinction of all the low-lying level land.

Kang-wha, with its curious monasteries and high protecting battlements, now reduced to picturesque decay, played a prominent part in the early history of Korea. It has repelled invasion, and afforded sanctuary to the Royal Family and the Government in days of trouble; the boldness of its position has made it the first outpost to be attacked and the most important to be defended. Twice in the thirteenth century the capital was removed to Kang-wha under stress of foreign invasion. With the exception of the terrible Japanese invasion under Hideyoshi in 1592, and the Chino-Japanese War in 1894-95, Kang-wha has felt the full force of nearly every foreign expedition which has disturbed the peace of the country during the past eight centuries, notably those of the Mongols in the thirteenth, of the Manchus in the seventeenth centuries, of the French in 1866, and of the Americans in 1871. Furthermore, Kang-wha was the scene of the affair between Koreans and Japanese which led to the conclusion of the first treaty between Korea and Japan in 1876. The actual signing of that instrument, the first of the series which has thrown open Korea to the world,

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took place in Kang-wha city. The predecessor of the present Emperor of Korea was born in Kang-wha in 1831, living in retirement in the capital city until he was called to the throne in 1849. Upon occasion, Kang-wha has been deemed a suitable place of exile for dethroned monarchs, inconvenient scions of Royalty, and disgraced Ministers.

At two points in the narrow strait upon the east are ferries to carry passengers to the mainland. Kang-song, where the stream makes an abrupt turn between low cliffs, is the scene of the American expedition of 1871; near the southern entrance of the strait, and close to the ferry, are the forts which repelled the American storming-party. The famous rapids and whirlpool of Sondol-mok, whose evil reputation is the terror of the coast, are close by. There are numerous forts dotted round the coast of the island, recalling the Martello towers of Great Britain. They were not all erected at one time; the majority of them date only from the close of the seventeenth century, having been raised in the early years of Suk-chong. The rampart upon the eastern shore, which frowns down upon the straits and river below, was erected in 1253. Ko-chong, of the Koryŏ dynasty, fled before the Mongol invasion of that date, removing his Court and capital from Song-do to Kang-wha. Kak-kot-chi, where there is a second ferry, is a few miles beyond Kang-song. At the point where the ferry plies, the hill of Mun-su rises twelve hundred feet high from the water's edge. From a junk a short distance from the shore

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it appears to block the straits, so closely do the cliffs of Kang-wha gather to the mainland. This little place became the headquarters of the French expeditionary force in 1866.

The capital of the island, Kang-wha city, is a battlemented citadel, with walls fifteen *li* in circumference, and four pavilioned city gates. It is a garrison town, beautiful in its combination of green vistas and ancient, crumbling walls. The Chino-Japanese War, so fatal to many of the old institutions of Korea, diminished the ancient glory of Kang-wha. For two hundred and sixty years prior to this campaign, Kang-wha ranked with Song-do, Kang-chyu, Syu-won, and Chyön-chyön as one of the O-to, or Five Citadels, upon which the safety of the Empire depended. It controlled a garrison of ten thousand troops; the various officials numbered nearly one thousand. The change in the destiny of the kingdom brought a turn in the fortunes of the island, and it is now administered by an official of little importance. It is still, however, the seat of government for a widely scattered region, and the centre of trade and industry for some thirty thousand people. Agriculture is the staple industry; stone-quarrying and mat-making are other means by which the population exists. At the water-side there are salt-pans; a certain amount of fishing, a little pottery-making, smelting, the weaving of coarse linen, to which work the wives of the farmers devote themselves, complete the occupation of the inhabitants. One pursuit, horse-breeding, for which

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Kang-wha was once famous, is now completely abandoned.

There are nine monasteries under the government of the island. Seven are situated upon the island; the chief of these is the fortified monastery of Chung-deung, the Temple of Histories, the sometime pillar of defence of the Kingdom, thirty *li* south of Kang-wha, famous as the scene of the reverse suffered by the French troops in 1866. Mun-su-sa, standing upon the mainland opposite, is included in this little colony of Buddhistic retreats, as is another, upon the island of Ma-eum-to, called Po-mun-sa, famous for the wildness of its scenery and for a natural rock temple in the side of the hill upon which it stands. The monks of Chung-deung-sa enjoyed military rank until quite recently. They were regarded as soldiers in times of national distress; they received Government allowances, food, and arms, in order to maintain them in a state of efficiency. Buddhism has lost much of its hold upon the islanders, although it existed before 1266. There is a branch of the English Mission (Seoul) in Kang-wha, under the administration of the Rev. Mark Napier Trollope, whose notes upon this island were presented in a paper which their author read before the local branch of the Royal Asiatic Society during my stay in Korea. They materially assisted me to collect the interesting data from which these few paragraphs have been compiled.

I stayed five weeks in Kang-wha monastery. Having gone there for a week at the outside, I found

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the quiet and solitude of the spot such a sanctuary from trouble, and such a calm to the nerves, that I was loath to abandon it. After a few days in the cramped confinement of the native junk which had conveyed me from Chemulpo, delaying much *en route*, it was pleasant to stretch my limbs again upon the shore. Landing one morning at daybreak, I fell upon the unsuspecting guardian of the English Mission, Father Trollope, and moved off at a later hour in the day across country to the monastery. The monks were not at all disturbed by my intrusion. Although strangers are not such frequent visitors to this monastery as to those in the Diamond Mountains, their presence excites no comment, and they are allowed to go their way with that kindly indifference to their existence which is, under the circumstances, the height of courtesy. The Chief Abbot was informed of my arrival, and, after a little explanation, ordered a very airy building to be prepared for my reception. It was well raised from the ground, and, situated just below the main courtyard, afforded a magnificent view of the entire domain. In the distance I could see the farm-lands of the island and the sparkle of the sunlight upon the water; more within the picture, and quite near to my new home, were two wells, a running stream, and a stretch of mountain slopes, cool, fragrant, and overgrown with scrub and bush. Temples revealed themselves in a sea of foliage, through which the drifting breezes played soft music. At one end of this Hall of Entertainment were placed

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the cooking and eating paraphernalia, in the middle of my camp-bed, and, overlooking the landscape, an improvised writing table with my books and papers. There was no element of unrest in the setting of my little camp. Every morning the Chief Abbot welcomed me to the glories of another day; in the evening we, through the medium of my interpreter, talked together upon an amazing variety of subjects — Buddha and Christ, this world and the next, Paris, London, America. Duties in the monastery would prevent these new friends from coming on certain nights; but they always forewarned me of their absence, never disturbing me at my work, never taking me by surprise. The sense of consideration and courtesy which their kindly hospitality displayed was manifested in countless ways. The small return which it was possible to make quite shamed me before them. Frequently, at midnight, when my lights were burning, the Abbot would walk across from his own apartments and force me to bed with many smiles and much gentle pressure, covering my manuscript with his hands and nodding towards my camp-bed. There was no screen to the front of my building, so it was always possible for them to observe the stranger within their gates. This inspection was most quietly carried on; indeed, if I turned to the open courtyard, those who, perhaps, had been noting the structure of my camp-bed, or the contents of my valise, hanging to air upon a stout rope, flitted away like ghosts. I was left, as I wished, in peaceful contempla-

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tion of my work and the splendour of the scenery around me.

Catering arrangements were quite simple during my stay in this monastery. Rice and eggs and fowls were procurable from the villages beyond the walls of the temple, and rice-flour or vegetables could be procured from the butterman of the monastery. It was my plan to take breakfast about ten o'clock in the morning, and to dine about six o'clock in the evening. Between these hours was my time for writing, and I was always fully occupied. Before breakfast I walked abroad or prepared my notes of the work for the day; after dinner I received my callers, arranging anything of interest in my notes when they were gone. Usually I witnessed the midnight gathering of the monks, listening, with pleasure, to the booming of the great bell of the monastery and the accompanying peals of smaller bells of less melodious volume and much shriller tone. The vibration in the air, as these wonderful noises broke upon it, filled the high woods with melody and the deep valleys with haunted strains as of spirit-music. After the midnight mass, when the echoes had died away, the delight of the moment was supreme. In utter weariness and most absolute contentment I stretched myself to slumber beneath the protecting draperies of the mosquito curtains, within the vaulted spaciousness of my Hall of Entertainment.

Visitors to Chung-deung-sa were frequent during my stay, some attracted by the reported presence

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of a foreigner, others by their very genuine wish to sacrifice to the All-Blessed-One. Two Korean ladies of position arrived in the course of one morning to plead for the intercession of Buddha in their burden of domestic misery and unhappiness. Presenting the Korean equivalent for ten shillings to the funds of the monastery, they arranged with the Abbot for the celebration of a nocturnal mass in the Temple of the Great Heroes. During the afternoon the priests prepared the temple in which the celebration was to be held; elaborate screens of Korean pictorial design were carried into the temple from the cells of the Chief Abbot; large quantities of the finest rice were boiled. High, conical piles of sweetmeats and sacrificial cakes were placed in large copper dishes before the main altar, where the three figures of Buddha sat in their usual attitude of divine meditation. In front of each figure stood a carved, gilded tablet, twelve inches high, exactly opposite to which the food was placed, with bowls of burning incense at intervals between the dishes. Lighted candles, in long sticks, were placed at either end of the altar; above it, in the centre, serving as a lamp and hanging from a long gilded chain, was suspended a bowl of white jade, in which lay the smoking end of a lighted wick. Numerous side altars were similarly decorated. The furniture of the temple comprised a big drum, a heavy, cracked bell, cast in the thirteenth century, and a pair of cymbals. There were five monks; the two women sat, mute, upon the left of the Abbot. The four priests arranged

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themselves upon the right — one to the bell, one to the drum, and two to the pair of cymbals, in the playing of which they took turns. Upon each side of the temple, recessed right and left of the main altar, were mural representations of the Ten Judges. Save for the altar illuminations, the effect of which was to render the interior even gloomier and more eerie than usual, the building was in darkness.

The service began with the customary calling for Buddha. The Abbot tapped upon a bamboo cane; every one leant forward, their faces pressed down, and their foreheads resting upon the floor. The palms of their hands were extended beyond their heads in an attitude of reverence and humility. This prostration was accompanied by the intoning of a Thibetan chant, to the accompaniment of a brass gong, struck with a horn handle by the Abbot himself. Further prostrations followed upon the part of the entire assemblage, the women joining in this part of the service. For the most part they squatted silently and reverently in their corner of the temple. As the different services concluded the Abbot shifted the offerings before the main altar to their appointed stations before the smaller shrines, when the prayers proceeded afresh. Protracted overtures were made to the pictures of the Ten Judges, before which the service apparently became fully choral. One priest danced amazing grotesque steps, strangely reminiscent of a Kaffir and war-dance, the sole of one foot striking the floor to the accompaniment of a clash of cymbals as the

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other leapt into the air. Another priest played upon the cracked bell, and a third kept up a dull, monotonous thumping on the drum. The sole idea of the priests, as conveyed to my mind by their celebration, seemed to be the breaking up of the solemn silence of the night by the most amazing medley of noises. At intervals, in the course of the unmusical colloquy between the drums, the cymbals, and the big bell, the monks chanted their dirges, which were, in turn, punctuated by the dislocated tapping of the Abbot's brass bell and wooden knocker.

It was deafening, the most penetrating discord of which I have ever been the unfortunate auditor. With the conclusion of the exercises upon the cymbals, which were beaten together in a wide, circular sweep of the arms, then tossed aloft, caught, and clanged together after the fashion of the South African native with his spear and shield, the performing priest returned to the companion who relieved him. His more immediate activities over, he stood aside laughing and talking with his colleagues in a voice which quite drowned the chants in which his companions were engaged. Then, panting with his late exertions, he proceeded to fan himself with the most perfect unconcern, finally examining the hem of his jacket for lice; his search repaying him, he returned to his seat upon the floor and lifted up his voice with the others. After the sacrifices and prayers had been offered before the main altar and those upon the right and left, extra tables of fruit,

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apples, dates, nuts, cakes, and incense, together with the previous dishes of rice, cakes, incense, and bread, were spread before a small shrine placed in front of the screen. Rice was piled into a bowl, and, while the other monks were laughing and chattering among themselves in the temple itself during the progress of the sacrifice, the two women approached the shrine and made obeisance three times, then touching each dish with their fingers, bowed again and retired to their corner. At the same time three priests, breaking from the group that were talking by the doors of the building, sat down in the centre of the temple upon their praying-mats, seven or eight feet from the shrine. While one chanted Korean prayers from a roll of paper, another struck and rang the brass bell repeatedly, and the third hammered the gong. Throughout this part of the service the others chatted volubly, until they, too, joined in a chorus and pæan of thanksgiving, breaking off from that to chant, in low, suppressed tones, a not unimpressive litany.

Repetitions of the services I have described continued all night. Sometimes there was more noise, sometimes less, occasionally there was none, the tired, quavering voices of the sleepy priests tremulously chanting the requisite number of litanies. The women, who sat with wide-opened eyes, watched with interest and were satisfied. The priests seemed bored. Personally I was tired, dazed, and stunned by the uproar. During the progress of this strange service, I was struck by the utter absence of that

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devotional fervour which was so characteristic of the priests in the principal monasteries of the Diamond Mountains.

The ceremony presently shifted from the Temple of the Great Heroes to the spacious courtyard in front of it. Here, when numerous fires had been lighted, the Abbot and three priests, together with the two Korean women, moved in procession. Their march was accompanied by the striking of many gongs and bells. The monks offered prayers round heaps of pine branches, which had been thrown together and lighted at the different spots. Chants and prayers were repeated, and the same clashing of instruments went on as before. It was not until a heavy rain descended that the worshippers returned to the seclusion of the temple. I felt, somehow, quite grateful to that shower of rain. In the morning, my interpreter told me that this progress in the courtyard formed a part of services which accompanied the offering of special prayers for rain. It would be a curious coincidence if this were so. Next day, at the hour of my breakfast, there was some desire to continue the celebration. My head was still aching with the jarring discord of the bells, gongs, and cymbals of the previous entertainment, and at the sight of the preparations my appetite vanished. Breakfast became impossible; I relinquished it to pray for peace. Happily this blessing was granted me; and it was decided to hold no further service — the rain, I presume, having appeared — and to devour the sacrifices. All that

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day the monks and their two guests ate the offerings. It was therefore a day of undisturbed quiet, and as my prayer also had been granted, each was satisfied, and we were a happy family.

A SCAMPER THROUGH KOREA

BY MAJOR HERBERT H. AUSTIN

CHAPTER XV

THE SORROWS OF A COVETED KINGDOM

FROM the remotest times Korea has been subjected to the invasion of the foreigner, the most terrible of those earliest recorded consisting of a series of incursions by the Chinese, which ultimately resulted about A.D. 700 in the greater part of Korea being conquered, and submitting to the suzerainty of China.

Korea was also invaded by Japan, according to Japanese tradition, about A.D. 202, when the Amazon Empress Jingu subdued the King of Shinra of the south-eastern part of the peninsula, and on the strength of this legend the Japanese claim to a suzerainty over Korea was not officially relinquished until 1876. In course of time this led to hostility between China and Japan, and in the seventh century Japan assisted one of the small Korean states against China unsuccessfully. In the thirteenth century China and Korea were forced to aid the famous Mongol Emperor Kublai Khan when that monarch set out with a great armada to invade Japan, which met with precisely the same fate as that despatched by King Philip of Spain against England. In revenge for China's participation in this expedition, for some three centuries Japanese

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pirates infested the coast of China. No place was safe from their daring raids, and the losses inflicted on the Chinese and their property during this period were immense.

These were, however, the efforts of private adventurers, but towards the close of the fifteenth century the Emperor Hideyoshi, who had risen from a lowly state to the first position in Japan, began to formulate gigantic schemes for the conquest of China. He proposed to the King of Korea a joint invasion of China, and this suggestion being rejected he decided to subdue Korea first as a stepping-stone to the greater project. With this object he is said to have landed 150,000 men near Fusan, furnished with a goodly supply of firearms. The success of the enterprise was rapid, and in eighteen days the capital, Seoul, had fallen into the hands of the Japanese, for the Koreans were quite unprepared for war. Their King fled into Liao-tung to implore the assistance of China; but three weeks later the Japanese had captured Ping-yang, the fall of this ancient capital of the kingdom spreading terror throughout Korea. Beyond this point the Japanese were unable to advance without the co-operation of their fleet lying at Fusan. It was ordered to sail round the western coast to the river Ta-tong to render assistance, but was attacked with great vigour by Korean seamen, and forced to return. A small army sent by the Chinese from Liao-tung, in answer to the appeals of the Korean King, was routed, and China entered into negotiations with Japan in order to

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gain time. A larger army was meanwhile collected, and advancing on Ping-yang compelled the Japanese to retreat. Following up their success, the Chinese, supported by ill-armed Korean peasants, attacked the Japanese at Seoul, but were repulsed after a sanguinary battle, and fell back on Ping-yang.

The Japanese, tired of the war and hard pressed for food, again consented to listen to terms of peace, and pending the discussion, evacuated Seoul and retired to the coast. Negotiations, however, fell through, and a second invasion of Korea was planned; but this time the Koreans were prepared, and although the Japanese gained victories and occupied the capital, want of supplies compelled them to retire to the coast near Japan, and during this march south they sacked and burnt all the towns. On reaching Urusan they took up a position to ward off the attacks of an immense army of avenging Chinese and Koreans, by which they were followed, and were besieged throughout the whole winter, undergoing fearful hardships from lack of food, water, and the rigours of the climate. When almost reduced by famine they were relieved by an army marching to their succour from Fusan, which defeated the besiegers after a desperate struggle. On the death of Hideyoshi, this war, which had lasted for six years, from 1592 to 1598, and the only practical result of which was the retention of Fusan by the Japanese, came to an end.

After their terrible experiences of Japanese invasions, the Koreans adopted every means to prevent

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foreigners entering their country in the future; but, to avoid conflict with China and Japan, sent tribute to Peking and Yedo, or Tokio. Early in the seventeenth century they were forced by two invasions to transfer their allegiance to the Manchus, who were then threatening the dynasty of the Ming, and shortly after became rulers of the Chinese Empire. Korea now enjoyed immunity from foreign wars for over two centuries, but within her borders became split up into factions, which destroyed all tranquillity at home.

Although China and Japan had in the meanwhile been opened to the commerce of the world, Korea still retained an attitude of splendid isolation, which gained for her the title of the "Hermit Kingdom." At the end of the eighteenth century Christianity had been introduced into the peninsula through the conversion of some Koreans in Peking; but when at a later date some French missionaries entered the country in disguise, and their missions flourished, violent persecutions of the Christians were commenced. Unable to obtain redress on behalf of her *protégés* from the Chinese Government, the French decided to coerce the Koreans themselves in 1866 by despatching a force to that country. At first they were successful, defeating the Koreans in several engagements; but on meeting with a slight repulse in the attack on a fortified monastery, the Admiral in command of the expedition ordered a retreat.

Attempts were also made to establish commercial

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relations with Korea by France, Russia, England, and America, but with ill-success. In 1871 America endeavoured to open out Korea to trade, as she had done in the case of Japan some eighteen years before, by fitting out an expedition; but effected nothing beyond capturing some five forts, and then retiring, as the French had done.

In 1864 the Ni Dynasty had come to an end by the sudden death of the King, and after a series of intrigues the recently deposed King, then a boy, was elected Emperor under the regency of his father, who was strongly opposed to all foreign encroachments. Japan had meanwhile — since the visit of the American fleet in 1853 — broken entirely away from her former traditions of isolation, and as the result of an extraordinary revolution the Shogunate fell, the Emperor was restored to absolute power, and Japan herself began to follow Western methods. She shortly after sent an invitation to Korea to acknowledge her ancient suzerainty — a suggestion that was insolently refused; but Japan was not yet strong enough to go to war for the insult received, so waited her time.

In 1877 China annexed the strip of country, some forty miles in width, that had served for many years as a neutral zone between her territory and that of Korea, and which had remained uncultivated and become the haunt of bandits, whom she had cleared out in 1875 by sending troops across the border, and a gunboat up the Ya-lu to destroy their strongholds. China's frontier now extended to the

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Ya-lu, and became conterminous with that of Korea. Towards the end of the same year, 1875, a party of Japanese sailors landing for water had been fired on by Koreans, and some thirty of them took reprisals by storming a fort and killing its defenders. Japan decided to adopt strong measures in retaliation for this outrage, and sent a naval expedition to obtain redress, after securing China's neutrality. Impressed by a display of its strength, the Koreans agreed, on February 27, 1876, to sign a treaty opening Fusan to Japanese trade. The lead given by Japan was soon followed by other nations, and within the next few years most of the European states had also concluded treaties with Korea, and additional ports were opened to trade. But the resources of the country proved poor, and little trade passed through the hands of Europeans. The Chinese and Japanese, however, each retained their hold on Korea, the former supporting Conservative methods, whilst the latter encouraged a Progressive party which had arisen, and which wished to introduce into Korea foreign customs and learning.

This position of affairs was brought to a head in 1882 by the ex-Regent intriguing to drive the Japanese out by violence. A Japanese officer, engaged to drill Korean troops, and seven others were murdered, whilst the Japanese Legation was sacked, and the Minister and his guard of twenty-eight Japanese were obliged to fight their way from Seoul to the sea, where they were rescued by a British gunboat.

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The Chinese on this occasion assisted the Japanese in obtaining redress for the outrage, and, after the requisite satisfaction had been obtained by the latter, captured the ex-Regent, and transported him to China where he was detained for several years.

Two years later, however, a fresh outbreak occurred and again the Japanese Legation was burnt and the Japanese compelled to fight their way to the sea, attacked this time by Chinese troops under Yuan-shi-kai, as well as the Korean mob. Korea was once more forced to apologise, to pay an indemnity, to punish the murderers of a Japanese officer, and to rebuild the Legation at her own expense. China was dealt with separately. Both China and Japan had sent naval and military forces to Korea to protect their interests, but collision was avoided, and Li-hung-chang and Count Ito were deputed to represent their respective Governments in the negotiations which followed. The Tientsin Convention, signed in 1885, stipulated that both countries should withdraw troops from Korea; that no more officers from either country should be sent to drill the Korean troops; and that if at any time either country should find it necessary to despatch troops there, the other should be informed. Peace was now secured in Korea for the next nine years.

About the middle of the nineteenth century a religious sect, known as the Tong-haks, had arisen, which in course of time attracted many adherents, who nurtured grievances against the Government on account of their originator being executed during

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the persecutions of the Roman Catholics in 1865. Some twenty-eight years later they demanded from the King that their martyred leader should be declared innocent, and accorded posthumous rank, and threatened to drive out all the foreigners from the country if their demand was not granted. Dissatisfied with the result of their mission, they arose in rebellion, which soon assumed most alarming proportions. The Government forces despatched to suppress the movement were defeated, and in their consternation the Korean Government, in June, 1894, appealed to China for assistance. In response, China sent a small force of about 2,000 men to Asan, and the moral effect of this landing, combined with some small success by the Korean troops, checked the progress of the rebellion for the time.

The Japanese Government had been informed that the force was being sent from China, and at once resolved to send troops also. Accordingly, men-of-war were despatched to Chemulpo to escort the Japanese Minister, Mr. Otori, from Japan to the capital. He was accompanied from the coast to Seoul by 400 marines as a preliminary measure, whilst Japan prepared to send far larger forces, which shortly followed, to protect her interests. The presence of both Chinese and Japanese troops in the country naturally produced a difficult situation, for whilst China continued to assert her suzerainty over Korea, Japan refused to acknowledge it. Matters were still further complicated by Japan proposing that reforms should be instituted for the



ARCH ERECTED TO COMMEMORATE THE SUBJUGATION
OF KOREA BY CHINA

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future better government of the country, and asking China to assist her in enforcing them. China, not wishing to interfere in the internal affairs of the peninsula, refused to join in such measures; but the Japanese were masters of the capital, whereas the Chinese had only a small force in the country at the coast, and Mr. Otori insisted that the reforms should be carried out. A very grave situation arose, as neither China nor Japan would yield and prospects of peace became almost hopeless. Yuan-shikai, the Chinese Minister at Seoul, returned to China on July 19, and the following day Mr. Otori delivered an ultimatum to the Korean Government, demanding that the Japanese reforms should be accepted unconditionally within three days, and that the Chinese troops should be ordered to withdraw. On July 22 the Korean Government replied that the Chinese troops had come at their request, and would not leave until asked to do so.

Thereupon the Japanese decided to attack the King's Palace next morning, and, after a short engagement, drove out the Korean troops and captured the King. This accomplished, they proceeded to remodel the Government, and placed the ex-Regent, the persecutor of Christians, the hater of foreigners, and the intriguer confined in China for years because suspected of having instituted the attack on the Japanese in 1882, in a position of authority. He, however, soon resigned.

Meanwhile China and Japan both prepared to reinforce their troops in Korea, and to enter upon

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the war which proved so disastrous for the former, and revealed for the first time to the world the power of the latter, who gained for herself a position amongst the great civilised nations. To follow the course of this struggle in detail is naturally beyond the scope of this book. Both on sea and land Japan quickly demonstrated her great superiority, and soon forced her huge unwieldy opponent to sue for peace. It is of interest to note, however the close similarity between the Japanese strategy of this campaign and that of the greater one ten years later when opposed to a European Power.

Actual hostilities broke out some days before the formal declaration of war (on August 1) by a naval fight at Phung Island, on July 25, between three Japanese and two Chinese ships, in which the latter were rapidly disabled, and a transport carrying 1,200 Chinese was sunk. The Chinese troops already in Korea were further routed, on July 29, in the neighbourhood of Asan, but some 1,500 fugitives managed to make their way north by devious routes to Ping-yang.

On August 10 Admiral Ito, with a fleet of twenty Japanese war-vessels, made demonstrations before Port Arthur and Wei-hai-wei, the two naval ports of China, in order to cover the movement of Japanese transports conveying troops into Korea by way of Chemulpo, Gensan, and Fusan. The Chinese armies of the three Manchurian provinces were meanwhile being marched south to Ping-yang and the Ya-lu, near the mouth of which was the chief landing-place

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for their troops which were being transported by sea.

The next event of importance was the capture of Ping-yang, a walled city, occupying a naturally strong position on the Tatong River, which was held by 13,000 Chinese, and had been greatly strengthened by fortifications erected in the neighbourhood. Against this position the Japanese advanced from the south with a total force of about 14,000 men under command of Lieutenant-General Nodzu, and captured it on September 15 with a loss of a little over 600 men, whilst the Chinese, during their disorderly flight, are said to have lost 1,500 n killed alone. This battle practically ended the Korean part of the campaign, for the Chinese retired north beyond the Ya-lu.

During a naval battle off Hai-yang Island on the 17th, the Chinese were heavily defeated, losing four of their vessels, or nearly a third of their fighting-force, whereas the Japanese lost none. This naval victory contributed largely to the success of subsequent Japanese operations, as it placed the command of the sea in their hands.

The troops about Ping-yang, consisting of the 3rd and 5th Divisions, were formed into the Japanese First Army, under command of Marshal Yamagata, and reached Wi-chu about October 20. A Second Army, consisting of a division and a brigade, was also formed under Marshal Oyama, and successfully landed some thirty miles east of Pi-tzu-wo, on the Manchurian coast, on October 24, and twelve subsequent days. About the same time the First Army

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forced the passage of the Ya-lu exactly as they did some ten years later, when opposed by Russian troops, by demonstrating before Antung and crossing and attacking about Chiu-lien-cheng. But the battle in this instance only lasted four hours, the Japanese loss being under 150 men in killed and wounded, whilst about 500 Chinese who fell were buried; and many guns, rifles, and large quantities of ammunition became the spoil of the victors on October 26. Feng-huang-cheng was occupied on the 30th, and the Chinese army appears to have dispersed. The 3rd Division further captured Taku-shan and Hsiu-yen, whilst the 5th reached the neighbourhood of the Motien Ling.

The Second Army drove the Chinese out of Chinchou on November 5 and 6; and the Ta-lien-wan forts, though modern and heavily armed, were abandoned by the garrisons, who fired a few shots and fled. The spoils captured were enormous, including nearly 2,500,000 rounds of ammunition for the guns, and nearly 34,000,000 rounds for small arms, besides 129 guns, food, horses, etc.

The advance was now continued on Port Arthur, which was reputed to be held by 13,000 Chinese, strongly fortified, and armed with modern guns. This formidable fortress fell in a single day — November 21 — with a loss to the Japanese of about 18 killed and 250 wounded! It is said that the docks, machinery, and other spoils captured here represented a value of over six millions sterling; and their defence had been despicable.

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Towards the end of November the 5th Division of the First Army were engaged about the Motien Ling; and the Chinese Amur Army was defeated before Feng-huang-cheng, and its persistent efforts to recapture that place successfully repulsed. In the meantime the 3rd Division, pushing forward from Hsiu-yen, brushed aside Chinese forces opposed to it, and captured Hai-cheng on December 13, and here it successfully maintained itself in face of Chinese armies located about Liao-yang, New-chwang, and Ying-kou, which made several futile attempts to drive the Japanese back.

After the fall of Port Arthur, the Japanese Second Army appear to have rested on their laurels for some weeks, and it was not until the end of December that any effort was made to co-operate with the First Army by advancing north. Then Major-General Nogi, with a mixed brigade of some 8,000 men, moved forward on Kai-ping, before which place he arrived on January 9. The town was held by some 4,000 to 5,000 Chinese, who occupied a strong position on the north bank of the river; but after three hours' fighting on the 10th the town fell into the hands of the Japanese at a cost of a little over 300 killed and wounded. Communications between the two portions of the First and Second Armies were now established, and a defensive line taken up for a time.

Turning to operations in the south, the 2nd Division had been sent out from Japan to join the Second Army, and, leaving one brigade to guard Port Arthur

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and Ta-lien-wan, Marshal Oyama sailed from the latter place on January 19 with one division and one brigade, in fifty transports, to seize Wei-hai-wei. The campaign proved short and decisive: the first troops landed on January 20, and by February 16 the Japanese were in possession of the forts and ships.

Towards the middle of February the Chinese again became active in the north, and made several feeble attempts to recapture Hai-cheng before the Japanese again assumed the offensive. The Japanese blows were rapid, and the Chinese armies were dispersed, and New-chwang and Ying-kou captured early in March. These successes practically terminated the war, as China was entirely at the mercy of the Japanese, of whom some 100,000 troops were assembled on Chinese soil, and ready to administer the *coup de grâce*. Li-hung-chang was now entrusted with the mission to treat with Japan for peace, and reached Shimonoseki on March 19. Negotiations were delayed for a time by an attempt on the part of a Japanese fanatic to shoot him on the 24th, whereby the aged statesman was wounded. Happily, he soon recovered, and on April 17, 1895, the Treaty of Shimonoseki was signed between China and Japan. By the terms of the Treaty, China agreed to recognise the complete independence of Korea; to cede to Japan the island of Formosa, the Pescadores group of islands, the Liao-tung Peninsula, and other territory; and to pay an indemnity of over \$125,000,000.

A coalition formed by Russia, France, and Ger-

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many, however, now stepped in, and advised Japan to relinquish her claims on the Liao-tung Peninsula, to which she consented; and, as subsequent history showed, Russia was not slow to avail herself of this concession, for three years later she concluded a convention with China, by which Port Arthur and Ta-lien-wan, and the adjacent waters, were leased to her for twenty-five years.

But before that the Octopus of the north had been stretching out her tentacles towards Korea. That distressful country was soon after this war overrun by undesirable emigrants from Japan, who created a bad impression by their aggressive attitude, and caused further friction between the two races. A strong anti-Japanese party existed in Korea, headed by the Queen, who soon became so powerful, and by her political sagacity so frequently checkmated their schemes for reform, that it was decided she should be made away with. She was barbarously assassinated on October 8, 1895, in her own palace, and the King's father, the ex-Regent, practically assumed the reins of government, whilst the King remained virtually a prisoner.

Early in 1896 the guard of the Russian Minister at Seoul had been largely increased, and much excitement was caused throughout the country by the escape of the King and Crown Prince from the palace, and their taking refuge in the Russian Legation. From here the King issued a proclamation calling on his subjects to protect him and avenge the death of the Queen. Several of the Ministers

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were murdered; the Japanese lost their influence, and for the moment the Russians were supreme. Later, in answer to appeals from his people, the King left the shelter of the Russian Legation, and, assuming the title of Emperor, occupied a palace in the heart of the city.

The Japanese accepted the situation, and entered into an arrangement with the Russians whereby they agreed to retain only three companies of infantry in the country to protect the Fusan-Seoul telegraph-line, while companies not exceeding 200 men each were to guard the Japanese settlements, two being stationed at Seoul, one at Fusan, and another at Gensan. Forces of similar strength were to be maintained by Russia for the protection of her Legation and consulates.

A monopoly was soon obtained by a Russian merchant for the right of cutting timber on the Ya-lu and Tumen rivers for a period of twenty-five years; a Russo-Korean bank was formed, and Russian subjects began to purchase land, and received mining and other concessions, and a Russian language school was started by the Korean Government. When, however, Russia attempted to depose the Englishman who had for some time most ably controlled the Korean Customs and Treasury, by substituting a Russian in his place, the British fleet appeared in Chemulpo, and the Russians gave way on this point.

Early in 1898, as previously stated, Russia obtained the lease of Port Arthur from the Chinese,

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and entered into a fresh treaty with Japan regarding Korea. Both Powers definitely recognised the independence of Korea, and pledged themselves mutually to abstain from all direct interference in the internal affairs of that country. They further agreed to take no measures regarding the appointment of military instructors or provincial advisers, without previous mutual understanding; and Russia also consented not to hinder the development of commercial and industrial relations between Japan and Korea.

For some years Korea enjoyed comparative prosperity, and there were undoubted signs of progress. Many foreigners were doing business in the country, more schools were started, electric tramways were introduced; the army was supplied with modern weapons, and drilled on modern lines; native newspapers flourished; and Korea entered the Postal Union. Christianity also about this time appears to have made great headway among the people, and a number of the better educated and foreign-trained Koreans were clearly desirous of genuine reform.

The struggle between Japan and Russia for predominance in Korea, still continued, however, and claims and counter-claims were put forward by each in turn, so that it soon became quite apparent that Russia had no intention of adhering to her agreement with Japan. Her aggressions had hitherto been chiefly limited to Manchuria, but, taking advantage of the timber concession granted to one of her subjects, she proceeded to occupy Yong-am-po,

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in Korean territory — at the mouth of the Ya-lu — with her troops, and to build up a Russian station there.

With a footing once obtained in Korea, this menace, if unchecked, meant the gradual absorption of the whole of that country under Russian rule, and sounded the knell of the Japanese Empire if successfully accomplished. The peninsula, as will be seen, is thrust out in a southerly direction from Manchuria for a distance of over 400 miles towards Japan, from the mouth of the Ya-lu to Fusan in a direct line. At its south-eastern extremity it is separated from the coast of Japan by a narrow channel barely 100 miles in width, in the midst of which is set the island of Tsu-shima. With Korea a Russian province the very existence of Japan as an independent nation would be most seriously threatened.

But Japan was not thus tamely going to submit to the unwarranted aggressions of her great rival. For years past she had been steadily building up both her army and navy, and now felt strong enough to speak. Into the details of the negotiations that followed it is unnecessary to go, but finally, on January 13, 1904, Japan replied for the last time, accepting the Russian proposal that, with respect to Russia's action in Manchuria (in her refusal to withdraw from that country in the face of solemn pledges to do so), Japan would consent to regard that as a question exclusively between Russia and China, on condition that Russia acknowledged

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Korea to be outside her sphere of influence. An early reply was asked for, and as none was forthcoming diplomatic relations were broken off, and the sanguinary conflict commenced, with the result that is well known. Japan secured all the advantages for which she had fought by the terms of the Treaty of Portsmouth, except that only half the island of Sakhalin was restored to her.

On the outbreak of war, the Japanese took possession of Seoul, but behaved with great moderation to the Koreans, and treated the people well by paying for all food requisitioned, and remunerating handsomely the thousands of carriers pressed into their services for transport purposes. Practically the whole administration of the country was, however, taken over by the Japanese, and before long martial law was rigidly enforced: her actions now became so pronouncedly harsh that the sympathies of the foreign element in Korea were gradually entirely alienated from Japan when it could no longer be doubted that she intended to destroy completely the independence of Korea. Events moved quickly: Marquis (now Prince) Ito was appointed Japanese Resident-General in Korea. The Emperor abdicated under pressure in favour of his son on July 19, 1907, and on the 31st a rescript was issued in the name of the new Emperor disbanding the Korean Army. This led to great excitement; the troops mutinied, serious riots took place, and the houses of the Cabinet Ministers were attacked and burnt by the mob. Although the capital was over-

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awed by General Hasegawa and his troops, risings took place in many of the districts against the Japanese, and troops were hurried from Japan to restore order.

The insurrection rapidly spread, and insurgent bands roamed the hills, where they have been since hunted down, and were still in January, 1909, being harassed by numerous Japanese columns. In November last Lieutenant-General Okasaki, lately commanding the 13th Division in Korea, stated that these insurgents were then merely bandits, but were likely to give trouble for a long time to come. The Division had been broken up into 270 detachments, and they were being assisted by 4,000 gendarmes (of whom 30 per cent. were Japanese, and the rest Koreans) in harrying the rebels.

This, then, was the condition of Korea during our visit to that troubled land in October, 1908, and yet on the surface there were few indications of the restless state of the country visible to the ordinary traveller passing through. At the important towns, such as Ping-yang, Seoul, and Fusan, and along the entire length of the railway from New Wi-chu to Fusan, from the north to the south of the peninsula, the inhabitants everywhere appeared to be pursuing their usual avocations, and one could not help being struck by the quiet and orderly demeanour of the Korean wherever met with. That Korea has utterly and completely lost her independence it is futile to deny. The present Emperor is a mere puppet in the hands of the Japanese, and his

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Ministers are but tools, the whole of the administration and government of the country being actually under the direction of the representatives of the Government of the Empire of the Rising Sun.

And though one's sympathies are naturally drawn towards the weaker race, apart from the fact that there is something peculiarly attractive about the Korean, in spite of his lazy, indolent nature, and since there is little room for doubt but that the whole nation has been most hardly and unjustly dealt with by Japan, yet, it seems to me, there is a general inclination to judge her actions too harshly in respect to the subjugation of Korea. Insufficient stress is laid on the fact that Korea, either absolutely independent or as a vassal of Japan, is essential for the future progress and even security of Japan.

From what has gone before it will be seen that Korea is incapable of managing her affairs. Left to herself, the country has always degenerated into a hotbed of intrigue and been rent by internal dissensions, and so would always be at the mercy of some foreign Power, or combination of Powers, who felt strong enough to take advantage of her defencelessness and defy the protestations of Japan. The experiences of the Island Empire in the past have not been of such a nature as to inspire her with confidence in the solemn pledges made by those with whom she has entered into Treaty relations regarding the recognition of the absolute and complete independence of Korea. For this article of her faith within the short period of ten years she

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was plunged into two costly wars, in the last of which the whole resources of the Empire were strained to the utmost limit, and only after a vast expenditure of blood and money did she issue triumphant from the ordeal, having secured the independence of Korea. Consider the enormous sacrifices that she had to make to attain this result, and how crippled she emerged from the Titanic struggle financially, and then soberly reflect whether any nation, having passed through the crisis that she had, would voluntarily have acted differently by withdrawing, knowing the incompetence of Korea to rule herself.

Japan is a poor country; taxation weighs heavily upon her, and she must obtain fresh markets and land near by which can be colonised by her surplus population; and strategically and commercially Korea has been ordained as that land. The new Japan, however, is young and has much to learn in the matter of colonisation, and her efforts hitherto have chiefly resulted in her stern hand having completely alienated the subject-race from herself. But she is gradually buying her experience, and, knowing her faculty for adopting the methods successfully employed by others, it is not too much to predict that, with more consideration for the conquered race, and a fair and just appreciation of the policy of the "open door," Korea should be destined to form a bright jewel in the crown of the Rising Sun.

Before bringing this chapter to a close it will not be out of place here to present to the reader a thumb-

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nail sketch of the country and its inhabitants, so that a better understanding may be arrived at as to character of the folk and of the scenery of this fascinating country.

The peninsula of Korea varies in length from 400 to 600 miles, and has a mean breadth of about 150 miles. Speaking generally, the country is extremely mountainous, and furnished with many streams, some being rivers of considerable size: such as the Chon-chon, about An-chu; the Ta-tong, on which Ping-yang is situated; and the Han, near the capital. The country is almost purely agricultural, large areas of rice being cultivated in the valleys and the smaller plains between the mountains; but as the Korean is little inclined to grow more than sufficient for his own requirements, there is still scope for extending enterprises in the direction of agriculture. A single line of rail, close on 600 miles in length, traverses the peninsula from north to south, from the Ya-lu to Fusan. The southern portion of this line, as far north as Seoul, was completed under Japanese direction, before the outbreak of war with Russia, and since the war this has been extended north to the Ya-lu, opposite An-tung. A small branch line, 25 to 30 miles in length, connects the capital with the coast at Chemulpo, which is distant about 300 miles by sea from Port Arthur. In addition to the above harbour, Korea possesses many excellent ports, particularly on the southern and western coasts; but on the east, Gensan, nearly due east of Ping-yang, is the only one of any value.

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As regards the inhabitants one is particularly struck, on crossing the Ya-lu, by the abrupt change from the prevailing blue colour of the garments worn by the Chinese on the north bank to the almost universal white worn by the Koreans on the South. The Korean gentleman wears long, loose, baggy white trousers, inserted into white socks of kid-like looking material, which are encased probably in brown shoes. A small, short white jacket covers the upper portion of his body, and when he takes his walks abroad this is surmounted by a long, cream-coloured garment of light texture — a species of long covert-coat — which adds a composure and dignity to his appearance that is still further heightened by his peculiar tall hat, made either of fine bamboo gauze-work, or, in the case of the more affluent, of horse, or even human, hair. With a long pipe in his mouth, the bowl supported by his hand, and an air of repose and affability in his leisurely gait, it would be *impossible* to regard him as anything but what he actually is — a gentleman.

The common coolie of the street also affects a similar dress, except that his socks and shoes are somewhat less elaborate, and, from lack of means, he cannot do otherwise than dispense with the tall hat and long, flowing overcoat; but he wears the baggy trousers and the little short jacket, and his head is either bare or he twists a handkerchief over it. Pigtailed are only worn by small unmarried boys, the other males either cutting their hair short or wearing it in the form of a top-knot. The top-knot

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was formerly the sign of a youth having reached man's estate, but under present conditions a large number of the male population wear their hair short like the Japanese.

In Ping-yang the women like the men, are dressed from head to foot in white, their garments being of a peculiar nature. Their ideas of modest display are somewhat different from those obtaining in the West, and the upper portions of their bodies are clad in a very short jacket, fastened across the chest with tape, and from the restraint of which, more often than not, their breasts are allowed to escape, and remain freely exposed. Over baggy trousers containing apparently many yards of cloth, which they also affect, they wear a long white apron-sort of garment secured about the waist, and reaching to below the knees. Their hair is generally done up into a knot, and their head-dress merely consists of a kerchief fastened across the forehead over it. In Seoul large numbers of women of the better class, seen in the street during the daytime, conceal most of their forms by green mantles, which are placed over their heads, and held together in front with their hands; whilst the long empty sleeves, which appear to spring from near the top of the head, hang loosely on each side.

Personally, I was extremely agreeably impressed by the outward appearance of the people, who are a fine-looking race — particularly the men, amongst whom many handsome intelligent faces are seen. The women, it struck me, with my Western notions,

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were not, as a rule, so fortunately endowed in this respect. As a nation, the men are certainly far handsomer than either Japanese or Chinese, though the ladies are inferior to both in the matter of good looks. In mental capacity, moreover, I am told by those who have instructed both Japanese and Korean youths that the latter are the superior, as they far excel the former in their ability to acquire foreign languages, and are in no wise inferior to them in other branches of learning. They lack, however, the grit, determination, and perseverance which is so characteristic of their conquerors, and this is probably due to centuries of oppression.

Indolence pervades the whole nation, and is very clearly and amusingly brought out in a clever little book called "Korean Sketches," by the Rev. Mr. Gale, who has laboured for years amongst the Koreans as a missionary. His description of the coolie at work digging is excellent. It is common — almost usual — in India to see two coolies man-handle a shovel, but in Korea I have seen four men thus employed, and a friend of Mr. Gale describes in comic manner five men doing the work of one.

Nor are the better classes possessed of more vigour, for Mr. Gale tells us: "No gentleman indulges in manual labour, or, in fact, in labour of any kind. His life consists in one supreme command of coolie service, while the coolie responds to every order. The lighting of his pipe or the rubbing of ink on the ink-stone must be done for him. Down to the simplest requirements of life he does nothing, so his

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hands become soft, and his finger-nails grow long. From constant sitting, his bones seem to disintegrate, and he becomes almost a mollusc before he passes middle-life." And again: "So he passes from us, one of the last and most unique remains of a civilisation that has lived its day. His composure, his mastery of self, his moderation, his kindness, his scholarly attainments, his dignity, his absolute good-for-nothingness, or, better, unfitness for the world he lives in, all combine to make him a mystery of humanity, that you cannot but feel kindly toward and intensely interested in."

When those who know well thus describe the characteristics of the Korean nation, is it any cause for astonishment that Japan should elect to rule the country herself?

CHAPTER XVI

IN THE LAND OF MORNING CALM

WE were up at 4.30 A.M. on the morning of October 3, and, mounting our 'rickshaws, departed an hour later for the landing-stage on the river-bank. We were accompanied by Mr. Nishikawa, who came to see the last of us, and to assist us in procuring our tickets and so on. Booking through to Ping-yang, we were herded on to a small launch crowded with Japanese, and all their baggage also, and, leaving the shore at 6 A.M., reached the railway jetty on the Korean side of the Ya-lu fifteen to twenty minutes later. We there had all our belongings transported by a Korean porter to the train waiting near by, and, the railway being a broad-gauge one (4 feet 8½ inches), were comfortably installed in corridor carriages, and were off at 6.30 A.M.

At first we traversed fertile plains set in the midst of rugged hills; considerable areas were under cultivation, but the kaoliang, so universally grown in Manchuria, is but little favoured in Korea, where the staple food of the inhabitants is rice, though beans, millet, and Indian corn are also sown. Many natives, in their becoming white garments, were at work in the fields, but the country villages passed were usually of a poor type, the huts being con-

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structed of mud walls and thatched roofs, with a reed fence round the garden of each habitation.

During the journey we crossed several large streams, over some of which, such as the Chonchon and Ta-tong, the Japanese appeared to be at work on the construction of new bridges. We reached Ping-yang shortly before 2 P.M., and, as we had telegraphed on ahead the previous day for rooms, were met at the station by a Japanese boy from the Yanaglia Hotel, who took over our baggage, whilst we set off in 'rickshaws for the inn, which is some little distance from the railway. We were very comfortable during our twenty-four hours' stay there, but as nobody about the establishment knew a word of English, it was not always easy to make our wishes thoroughly understood now that we were deprived of the services of Mr. Nishikawa. It was an excellent opportunity, however, for us to practise the Japanese acquired during the past few weeks.

After tea we chartered 'rickshaws, and proceeded on a tour of inspection to the city near by, and also to call on Mr. Noble, the missionary, who, together with his wife and family, had been in Ping-yang for the past twelve years. We were fortunate enough to find them at home, and Mr. Noble kindly placed at our disposal for the remainder of the afternoon one of his lay-teachers, a Korean who could speak English and Japanese as well as his own tongue. With him as guide, we traversed many of the streets of the town, which is a large one of some 40,000 inhabitants,

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but possesses few buildings of any pretensions whatsoever, beyond the mission church and one or two others. The generality of the buildings are small, with roofs of thatch, and the streets are for the most part narrow and dirty. At this hour of the day they were thronged with people of both sexes and of all ages; but there was an absence of the hurry and bustle so common in Chinese streets, and the shopkeepers seemed indifferent whether their wares exposed for sale attracted purchasers or not. In Ping-yang one sees the Korean *chez-lui*, so to speak, and there is little evidence of foreign dominion in the city itself, for the Japanese largely confine themselves to their own concession outside (in the neighbourhood of the railway), where some 7,000 of them have settled down, and comparatively few were noticed within its walls.

Consequently the Korean gentleman is seen perambulating the streets at his best; the coolie also looms large, laboriously carrying huge weights on his back supported on a frame consisting of two forked branches fastened together, or basking in idleness in the bright sunshine; whilst groups of small lads and young students in their peaked caps, just out from school and homeward bound, are met at every turn. Nearly every woman, from the age of about eighteen and upwards, appears to be a proud mother, for few are seen as they walk the streets that have not a baby strapped to their backs. And so we threaded our way through this dignified and easy-going throng until we reached the fine East Gate of

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the city, and, passing under the arch, found ourselves on the bank of the Ta-tong or Tai-dan-gan River. At that time of year the stream was about 100 yards wide, its surface dotted with small craft being rowed to and fro, whilst a bridge of boats spanned the river from bank to bank.

General Broadwood had left a note on the Japanese Resident of Ping-yang, early in the afternoon, asking permission to visit the prisons and other places of interest on the morrow; just as we had finished dinner the Vice-Resident was announced, and, though his knowledge of English was limited, we understood that he would call for us at 8 A.M. next morning, and personally conduct us. He had barely left before a newspaper-man made his appearance, with what reason it was not quite clear, for he could scarcely speak English at all; but as he seemed anxious to have our cards, we graciously presented these to him.

As the Vice-Resident had not arrived at the appointed hour next morning, we ascended a low hill just outside the hotel, on the top of which we saw Japanese exercising horses, and from there obtained a good view of their barracks on the other side. Ping-yang is the headquarters of two battalions, which were distributed throughout the neighbouring districts, half a battalion being located at that time in Ping-yang itself. The barracks are commodious blocks of buildings, two stories in height, and substantially built of brick, with a fine parade-ground in front. The Vice-Resident shortly

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after appeared on the summit, so we descended the hill together, and accompanied him to the Japanese prison near by.

There were only a few prisoners visible, not more than half-a-dozen or so, and these were doing odd jobs about the prison-yard. The buildings were clean, well ventilated, and airy. An enclosed passage ran along the whole length of the front of the cells, which were separated from it by alternate iron bars and wooden scantlings the full height of the cells from floor to roof. The yard is surrounded by plank fencing 7 or 8 feet in height, and surmounted by several strands of barbed wire.

From the Japanese prison we 'rickshawed to the Korean Governor's house, and were met on arrival by Mr. Oki, the Japanese Secretary, who showed us to his offices, situated in a Korean building of considerable size in close proximity to the Korean prison. These large houses are warmed during the winter, which is very severe, much on the same principle as the Chinese *kangs*, though the method is more elaborate; for the whole floor of the house is undermined by hot-air chambers passing up and down the room, and connected with large pine-fires lighted immediately outside the exterior wall. After some conversation we were conducted to the prison, the newer portion of which is built on the same lines as that of the Japanese, except that all the uprights in front of the cells consist of wooden scantlings some 3 inches square, with about 6 inches intervals between them. Unlike the Japanese prisoners, however, who

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are provided with bedding and other conveniences inside each compartment, which is shared by only two or three men, the Korean criminals were herded together, from lack of accommodation, to the number of from twenty-five to thirty in a cell perhaps 12 to 14 feet square. Criminals undergoing various terms of imprisonments, from six months for minor offences to others doing ten and fifteen years for serious ones, were, for the same reason, all mixed up together, seated in four rows on the floor of the cells. There were four such cells fully occupied by men, whilst another contained only two Koreans, superiorly dressed, and evidently men of some position, who had been condemned to ten and fifteen years' incarceration for political offences. Beyond this, again, in the next cell were some fifteen women seated in two rows, with their faces towards the side partitions. Most of these unfortunate creatures were murderers and poisoners condemned to long terms of imprisonment; and though the majority were no longer young, and showed their character in their faces, a few appeared to be little over twenty years of age, and were quite nice-looking.

In spite of the somewhat crowded condition of these cells, the place was perfectly sanitary, fresh-smelling, and well-ventilated, a peculiar disinfectant with pleasant pine odour pervading the whole building with its aroma. Immediately behind this new building — constructed since the Japanese administration — is the old Korean prison, now used as cells for those prisoners who have given trouble, and

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are not permitted to take exercise in the yard. These cells have been greatly improved by the Japanese in many respects, and made sanitary by providing proper ventilation and giving more light to the wretched occupants; but they are far from desirable residences. In front of the cells, which face the open courtyard, a thick mud-and-stone wall is built up to a height of about 4 feet above ground-level, and into this are secured the wooden scantlings which effectually bar all means of escape, as they extend up to the eaves of the low roof, which descends to little more than 3 feet above the top of the wall. There were two such cells, both long and narrow, in one of which were confined the worst criminals, as though imprisoned in a pit; whilst in the other were forty-three Koreans awaiting trial.

After we had completed our inspection of the prisons, Mr. Oki kindly undertook to conduct us to a high eminence to the north of the town, and within the old walls, from whence we were promised a fine view of Ping-yang and the surrounding country; and we were well repaid for the hot walk of something over a mile along the western edge of the wall to reach this point. On a knoll immediately above the Government offices the Japanese had erected a monument to those of their countrymen who fell during the capture of Ping-yang in the Chino-Japanese War; and as we proceeded along the wall we were shown the spot, just outside, where a skirmish had taken place with Russian Cossacks during the last war. The north-western portion of the city

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wall runs irregularly up the hillsides, is still in a very fair state of preservation, and rises some 15 to 20 feet above the level of the slopes outside. Within the walls hereabouts is open rolling grass-land which ascends steadily towards the peak on which our footsteps were directed, the town lying to the south, in the valley below, on the river's bank. Trees are singularly few in number, but outside the wall the hill-slopes to the west are clothed in magnificent old pines which grow there in great profusion.

On reaching the old Chinese pavilion at the summit, we found it held other visitors besides ourselves, chiefly Japanese men and women; and one was not surprised to find that the view from this point proves an attraction to the dwellers in Ping-yang, for a glorious panorama of the valley of the Tai-dan-gan is stretched before one looking north and south, whilst to the east and west undulating cultivated plains extend to the foot of the mountain ranges. A short distance across a narrow neck to the north is another small peak, known as the Peony Mount, the capture of which by the Japanese resulted in entry being obtained into the city. This was accomplished by means of a gallant dash at the gate in front of the archway through the wall near the pavilion, which was carried in the face of a heavy fire. "Vladimir" thus describes this incident: "As soon as Colonel Sato saw that Peony Mount had been taken, he directed his efforts against the Gemmu (Hyon-mu) Gate, the nearest on that side of the city. The Chinese defended the walls so well, and

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kept up such a brisk fire, that the Japanese assault was repulsed. . . . Lieutenant Mimura, burning with shame at the repulse, shouted to his men, 'Who will come with me to open that gate?' and at once rushed towards the Gemmu Gate. Harada, one of the soldiers of Mimura, then said, 'Who will be first on the wall?' and flew after his officer. They ran so quickly that only eleven other soldiers were able to join them under the wall after passing through a rain of lead. Mimura and his small band of heroes found the gate too strong to be forced, so the lieutenant gave the order to scale the walls. The Chinese were busy firing in front, keeping the Japanese troops back, and never imagined that a handful of men would have the boldness to climb the wall like monkeys under their very eyes. Mimura and his men came upon them with such surprise that they were scattered in an instant. The Japanese at once jumped down inside the walls and rushed the gate, killing three of its defenders and dispersing the rest, Mimura cutting right and left with his sword." After considerable difficulty, the gate was unbolted, though the gallant little band suffered several casualties from the Chinese firing into them from behind before they could admit their astonished comrades, who were outside the walls. The entry here forced virtually resulted in the capture of Ping-yang.

In the river-bed immediately below this high eminence the Japanese were constructing the head works of the water-supply to be distributed in the near future to the town. The river water is highly

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contaminated, and the cause of much sickness in Ping-yang, so the Japanese, with their usual thoroughness in sanitary matters, have set to work to remedy this evil. The construction of the settling-tanks and filter-beds, and erection of the pumping-machinery, were in an advanced state, and the filtered water was to be pumped up to a rising main to the reservoir near the top of the hill, and thence carried by gravitation through a 20-inch main for distribution throughout the town below.

On reaching the foot of the hill, Mr. Oki bade us good-bye, and returned to his house above the Government offices, whilst the Vice-Resident accompanied us back through the town to our hotel in our 'rickshaws, which had been sent round to meet us at this point. Having completed our packing and lunched, we left by the 2.2 P.M. train for Seoul.

Of the journey to Seoul there is little to describe. As one proceeds south from Ping-yang, the more open plains of the north dwindle away in size to narrow valleys enclosed by hills of varying height, the country being extraordinarily well watered by numerous streams which are crossed by the railway. Over many of the larger of these the Japanese were constructing new bridges of considerable size. Before half the journey had been completed darkness fell over the scene, so the landscape became obliterated, except what was visible under the pale light of a comparatively new moon.

We arrived at the Nondaimon Station shortly after 10 P.M., and were there met by the Astor House

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Hotel courier — a Korean in his native costume, who spoke English. With his assistance, we obtained 'rickshaws (whilst he looked after our heavy luggage), and drove off to the hotel, a journey of some twenty minutes, over rough, broken roads. Rooms had been reserved for us, and we were soon settled down again to the European mode of living, which afforded a pleasant change from Japanese after five consecutive nights' experience of the latter. The servants were all Korean boys, the management under a European, and inclusive charges little more than we had lately been paying for far inferior fare and accommodation.

By an extraordinary coincidence a very old friend of mine, whom I had not met for six or seven years — Major Blair, R.E., from Tientsin — was spending his honeymoon travelling in Japan, Korea, and Manchuria, and he and his wife were stopping at the Astor House at the time of our arrival. Shortly before leaving England a mutual friend had observed to me that he would not be surprised if I ran across the Blairs somewhere in Japan, and though the probability of doing so had appeared extremely remote, the seemingly unlikely had actually occurred, except that the meeting-place was to be in Korea instead of Japan. It was only quite an afterthought that had induced them to visit Korea from Japan, and as they were leaving for Mukden the second day after our arrival it certainly was a most remarkable circumstance that, quite unknown to each other, we should have reached Seoul very nearly at the same time.

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After breakfast next morning we took 'rickshaws and drove to the Daiichi Bank, in the Japanese quarter of the town, entering the city walls, which are lofty and castellated, by the West Gate, close behind the hotel. An electric car line also passes through this gate and runs to the East Gate along the main street of the town on raised rails, which do not add to the comfort of the traveller by 'rickshaw, for the roads are so bad that the coolie, in his anxiety to take advantage of good portions, constantly crosses and recrosses the line by a series of short sharp twists and violent bumps over the rails. Fortunately, shortly after entering the gate, we dived down a side-road, and were conveyed through a maze of narrow streets to our objective. Having supplied ourselves with the sinews of war, we next called on the British Acting Consul-General, Mr. Lay, who occupied a fine official residence set in a charming garden on high ground. We were able to obtain from here a comprehensive view of the town and the surrounding chain of hills, which almost completely encircle it.

Mr. and Mrs. Lay kindly asked us all to lunch, and we spent a very enjoyable hour or two with them in the early afternoon. We were not a little surprised to hear that there was quite a large community of Europeans in Seoul, and that Mrs. Lay's social duties required her to call on some sixty ladies of different nationalities. Their experiences at the time of the affair at Chemulpo, when the Japanese squadron ordered the Russian gunboats, which had

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taken shelter there on the outbreak of hostilities, to come out of the harbour, were most interesting, for they were actually able to see the fight, which took place some seven or eight miles out to sea, from the Consulate, the doors and windows of which were shaken severely by the thunder of the guns.

Later in the afternoon Captain Heathcote and I tramped the whole length of the town from west to east along the car line — a distance of some two and a half miles from gate to gate. The road we followed was generally a fine, broad, open one, but appeared to be more on the outskirts than in the busy part, such as we had traversed in the morning. The shops were small, and, as a rule, uninteresting, whilst buildings of any size were singularly few, the most imposing being a large red-brick structure under construction, destined to be the Young Men's Christian Association. The East Gate of the city is surmounted by the usual two-storied structure of graceful design, and highly ornamented, and this we ascended to get a view, but saw little. Subsequently we climbed up the hillside in a northerly direction along the top of the wall, a massive erection in stone, 10 to 12 feet wide at the summit in places, and loop-holed at a height of about 20 feet above the ground outside. This wall ran round the entire city, over hill and dale, in irregular lines, and from one of the highest points reached by us we obtained an excellent bird's-eye impression of the city lying below us. In actual extent it considerably exceeds Mukden, but is not so closely packed with houses, for in



EXTERIOR OF RECEPTION ROOM, QUEEN'S APARTMENTS,
EAST PALACE, SEOUL

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the south-west corner there were large open spaces, apparently used as recreation grounds, and numerous patches of vivid green indicated plots of cultivated land, whilst dark belts of pines and other trees on the slopes of lesser hill-features were also visible. The area enclosed by the walls cannot be far short of some five square miles, and within their shelter some 200,000 Koreans dwell, the Japanese community being estimated at about 30,000 souls.

In the evening I dined at the hotel with Major and Mrs. Blair, who were entertaining General Akashi, a former friend, and Commandant of the Korean Gendarmerie, who spoke French fluently with Mrs. Blair and English with her husband and me. This was, unfortunately, our only day together, for the Blairs were leaving early next morning bound for Mukden. I pointed out to Mrs. Blair that she would find accommodation on ahead somewhat more primitive than in Seoul and Japan; but she regarded these matters as mere trifles, and was keenly looking forward to the experiences before her. Together with her husband, she had apparently made a close study of the Russo-Japanese War, and was already quite familiar with the operations, the scenes of which she was eager to view.

Following General Broadwood's usual practice, we set out next morning to call on the Acting Japanese Resident-General, Viscount Sone, Prince Ito being on leave in Japan. It was showery when we started, and the Koreans had donned their curious conical-shaped oil-skin covers over their tall hats to

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keep the rain off their heads. The Japanese Government offices are situated in a fine new building, lately erected on the slopes of Nan San, at some considerable height above the level and to the south of the town. We were introduced to the Resident-General (a handsome man with grizzled hair and moustache) by the Secretary of Foreign Affairs, who spoke English fluently, and acted as interpreter during the interview, as His Excellency did not speak our tongue. It was arranged that in the course of the next day or two we should have an opportunity of inspecting some of the local schools.

We next called on Major-General Moratta, the Chief of the Staff on military matters to the Resident-General, whose house was close by. He speaks French fluently, having formerly spent some years in France, and he had also been present in London on the occasion of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee. General Moratta is an excellent conversationist, and told us a great deal about various tours he had made throughout Korea, and discussed many other interesting subjects as well, so our stay with him was one of considerable duration. It had been General Broadwood's intention to call also on General Hasegawa, commanding the Japanese troops in Korea, but as the General was engaged on committees that morning, our visit had to be deferred until the next day, and we returned to the hotel.

In order to see something of the environments of Seoul, we set out on foot in the afternoon for a tramp of about nine miles, visiting the White Buddha, one

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of the few curiosities of which Seoul can boast. Leaving the hotel, we struck north along the Pekin road, passing the large arch erected shortly after the Chino-Japanese War by the Koreans, as a thanksgiving for the recognition of their independence. Continuing up the hillside the road runs through a deep rock cutting, known as the Pekin Pass, beyond which we dropped into a narrow plain through fields of cotton and chillies, the beautiful large red pods of which were being dried in great quantities on the thatched roofs of the huts, and gave a vivid splash of colour to otherwise bare surroundings. Leaving the Pekin road, we turned off east up a sandy nullah-bed leading to the site of the White Buddha in a rocky granite gorge in the heart of the low hills. The figure, which is some 8 to 10 feet in height, in a sitting posture, is cut in relief on the face of a rock situated in the bed of the stream, the whole being whitewashed except for the colouring of the necklace, mouth, nose, eyes, and eyebrows, and protected by a small Chinese pavilion of the usual type erected over the rock. Near by, and higher up the side of the ravine, are a small shrine and temple, with quarters for the few priests who dwell here.

Leaving the Buddha, we proceeded farther up the gorge until we reached the point where the outer city wall, running over ridge and valley, crosses the stream by a bridge of several arches, and continues up the opposite hill-slopes. Passing through the gateway at the bridge, we turned up a pretty little wooded valley, in which were a few scattered huts,

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leading to the summit of the ridge, and there again entered within the precincts of the city wall by means of another gateway. From thence we rapidly descended into the arena below, in which the town proper is situated, and winding our way through a labyrinth of narrow streets, made for the Pagoda Gardens, so-called by reason of a small, finely carved white marble pagoda, some 25 to 30 feet in height, which is situated in the grounds. These public gardens, though small, are well laid out with flower-beds, pathways, and shelters, and a covered bandstand with curious sounding-box roof at once catches the eye on entering; in another corner is a marble pillar supported on the back of a huge tortoise carved out of a block of granite.

Desirous of seeing Korean life in all its different aspects, we paid a visit after dinner to the Theatre Royal, close by, and derived no little entertainment from watching several acts of a Korean play, performed mainly by men and boys. The building in which it took place was one of some size, the seats in the body of the hall being raised in steps until they reached the level of the gallery or promenade, on which we had our seats in a private box on the right-hand side. There were four or five boxes on each side of the hall; those on the left, reserved for Korean ladies, being all full. Not understanding a word of the language, we were, of course, unable to fathom the plot — if there was one at all — though a gigantic paper or cardboard pumpkin, which was repeatedly being cut, seemed to be the chief cause

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of interest in this highly sensational drama. Most of the dialogue was chanted to the accompaniment of a drum played by a man on the stage, and from time to time supers strolled across the scene as though they regarded themselves as invisible for theatrical purposes. The music was by no means discordant, and the high falsetto voice so commonly heard in India appeared to be considered worthy of commendation in Korea, as applause occasionally broke out when a peculiarly high note had been successfully grappled with. At the end of each scene a red-and-white curtain, running along a wire, was pulled across the stage from one side, and a member of the company would come before the footlights and hold forth to the audience, whom he was apparently informing what might be expected in the scene about to follow.

So the play dragged on until about 10.30 P.M., when the curtain was drawn aside to reveal the entry of twelve *geisang*, or dancing-girls, prettily arrayed in green and red, with long, loose silk cuffs — I suppose one would call them — depending from the wrists, and hanging far below the tips of their fingers. Most of these girls during the earlier part of the entertainment had been mixing freely with the young Korean bloods of the balcony, who, like ourselves, were occupying the most expensive seats in the house — price one yen, or approximately two shillings. They were pretty little creatures in a dainty kind of way, with hair neatly done up on the top with a flower placed in at one side, somewhat after

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the fashion of Burmese girls. During the last act of the play they had all disappeared to adorn themselves in the garb in which they now appeared before us. They made their entry in two rows of six, one behind the other, and after a few preliminary movements *en masse* fell into two rows again, Indian file, at the back of the stage. In the centre was a large cloth screen supported on a high wooden frame, end-on to the audience, and to opposite sides of this one girl from each group advanced, and there danced in perfect unison with the other, though apparently unseen by her. The remainder retained their positions, watching the graceful movements of the two performing, who, judged by their actions, appeared to be simultaneously going through the ordeal of doing their hair and other toilet difficulties before each side of the screen, as though it were a mirror. When they had finished, they each threw a wooden ball at an orifice at the top of the screen, and if it successfully passed through they helped themselves to a flower from two large bowls on tall pedestals at each side of the stage near the footlights. Should a girl fail in her shot, she resumed her place at the back of her row without a flower. Then the next pair of girls would advance and go through the same evolutions, and so on until they had all done their turn to the accompaniment of an orchestra consisting of several reed instruments and drums played by men ranged up along one side of the stage. We watched three sets of girls go through the dance,

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and as it was then close on 11 P.M., we concluded it was time to go to bed, and returned to the hotel.

We called on General Hasegawa at his private residence next morning, and were there met by Mr. Secretary Kuroda, who acted as interpreter during the interview, as he spoke French fluently — in fact, in vivacity, gesture, and general appearance he is far more like a Frenchman than a Japanese, and he speaks English well also. General Hasegawa is a fine soldierly-looking man, with strong, determined face, and is less like the usual stamp of Japanese in feature than European. He ordered champagne to be handed round, drank our healths, and arranged that Mr. Kuroda should show us the Korean barracks and troops in the afternoon.

Accordingly, after lunch, we drove in 'rickshaws to the barracks, close to the North Palace, were received by Mr. Kuroda, and introduced to the Korean Vice-Minister of Military Affairs and Major-General Ai, a tall, slight young man, who had received his military education in Japan, and is the proud Commander of the Korean army, numbering about 500 men. The former army, it will be remembered, was disbanded in July, 1907, since when one battalion has been raised under Japanese supervision, its chief duty being to act as the Emperor's bodyguard. These troops are being trained mainly by Japanese officers, of whom there were a good many present on the parade-ground, as well as Korean officers, whose uniform is precisely similar, except that their badges of rank are worn on the sleeve, and not on the

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shoulder as in the case of the Japanese. Only one company was drawn up on parade, as the remainder of the army were in attendance on the Emperor, who was visiting his father. It went through the manual exercise for our benefit with commendable smartness under command of one of its Korean officers, and performed various evolutions on the parade-ground with precision.

It is not easy for a foreigner to distinguish the difference between a Korean and Japanese when both are dressed in uniform, beyond the fact that, as a rule, the former is usually of slighter build and taller than the latter. The troops drawn up for General Broadwood's inspection had not yet received their khaki uniform, with which they were to be provided in the near future; they were wearing out their old kit, which consisted of blue with red facings, white canvas gaiters, with knapsack, accoutrements, rifle, and peaked cap with red band, exactly the same as those of the Japanese troops. The men are reported to be intelligent and very quick in learning their drill; but, in their characteristic fashion, are seemingly equally prompt in forgetting, through indifference, what they have learnt.

After inspecting the company drawn up in line, General Broadwood went round their barrack-rooms, in each of which some thirty men are accommodated. They sleep on raised wooden platforms running the whole length of the rooms, their wooden kit-boxes being placed underneath. The men's quarters extended round practically three sides of the

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barrack-square, the west end being reserved for the army offices and so on. So far as one could gather, the men at present are not enlisted for any definite period, nor have they any choice whether they wish to join the army or not.

From the barracks we went on to the North Palace, which is open to visitors on Wednesdays and Sundays on payment of a small entrance-fee of ten sen — about five cents. The buildings are arranged much on the same principle as those seen in the palace at Mukden, in a sequence of courtyards leading from one to the other; but the colouring, particularly of their roofs, is less striking, for only tiles of a dark hue are used, in place of the yellow and green ones of the Manchu capital. The King's Audience Chamber is an imposing structure, the high roof being supported on lofty wooden pillars some 3 feet in diameter and painted vermilion. The interior is most tastefully painted in red, green, pink, blue, and white tints, and the carvings and ornamentations generally are charming. The roof cannot be less than 50 feet above the floor-level, and the centre is richly decorated with a gorgeous design of two gold-and-red dragons within a circle, while the ceiling of the lower roof, immediately over the raised dais on which the Emperor's throne is placed, is similarly treated. The whole of the interior forms as picturesque a specimen of decorative wood-work as one can well imagine, and the dimensions of the chamber are of noble proportions.

The late Queen's apartments in the courtyards in

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rear are still closed to the public; but we were able to inspect their exterior, and were pointed out the chamber in which she was brutally murdered on October 8, 1895. Many other buildings of imposing design exist within the precincts of the palace walls, all of which are now unoccupied, as the present Emperor lives in another palace in the heart of the city; but that which perhaps appeals to one more than any other is the summer-house. This is set in the midst of an artificial lake enclosed within masonry walls, the surface of the water being covered with a thick growth of lotus-leaves. These plants flower in July and August, and we did not see them at their best; but as it was, the surroundings were exquisite. The building is founded on an island of stone, some 50 yards square, which is connected with the shore by three delicate stone bridges 30 to 40 feet in length, and is carried on forty-eight granite pillars, some 15 feet in height. They thus form a charming colonnade about 115 feet in length and 100 feet broad, the under portion of the floor of the building above being completely covered with coloured designs of lotus-flowers. Access from ground-level to the apartments is obtained by a stairway near the bridges, and the residence is surmounted by a lofty roof of the usual pattern in China and Korea, with turned-up eaves at the corners. Round the lake shore the banks are planted with willow and other trees, the whole constituting an ideal abode for the hot summer months.

We had been asked by Mr. Kuroda to tea at his

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house after we had seen over the palace, but had first to return to the hotel, as General Moratta had promised to call on General Broadwood. He was so long with us that it was 5 P.M. before we were able to leave the hotel, and, as we had half-an-hour's 'rickshaw ride before us, the sun was practically setting before we reached Mr. Kuroda's residence. On arrival, we were conducted by one of the servants along a path leading from the house up a delightful fir-clad glen, which ran through the pretty, well-laid-out grounds to a summer-house high up on the slope of Nan San, where Mr. and Mrs. Kuroda were entertaining about a dozen Japanese ladies to tea. We were introduced to Mrs. Kuroda, who speaks English perfectly, without any trace of foreign accent, and were then presented by her to the other Japanese ladies before sitting down to join them. But it was already so late that, unfortunately, they had finished before we arrived, and very shortly took their departure. We remained for some time midst our pleasant surroundings, and as the moon began to rise followed our hosts back to their house, where we were shown some extremely choice porcelain that Mr. Kuroda had collected in Seoul during the past two years. Some of the pieces were over 700 years old and of great value, Mr. Kuroda being a noted connoisseur. He had whole glass cases full of his purchases, but, as it was getting late, we had to satisfy ourselves with a very cursory inspection of his treasures. The Koreans of the present day have apparently quite lost the art of making china, an

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art in which, some hundreds of years ago, they greatly excelled.

The evening's programme was kindly provided by General Broadwood, by which we were enabled to see another phase of Korean life — dining Korean fashion at a tea-house near the North Palace. The instructions previously conveyed to the manager of the establishment by an interpreter were to the effect that the meal was to consist entirely of Korean dishes, was to be served in Korean manner, and the entertainment was to be conducted entirely on Korean lines. At the appointed hour for the feast we set out in 'rickshaws with the interpreter, and on arrival at the tea-house removed our boots, and, provided with slippers, were shown into a large room on the ground floor, where we smoked cigarettes as we squatted on cushions pending the announcement of dinner. We then made a move to the room upstairs, where the meal was spread in bowls on a table, round which we sat. Numerous and varied were the dishes by which we were confronted, and all were cold except the opening soup, which was brought in steaming hot by one of the servants, followed by four young *geisang* — dainty little ladies who were to wait on us. They appeared overcome with bashfulness at the prospect of the ordeal of attending on foreigners at first, and to the uninitiated it seemed as though they were observing no particular method in the order in which we were being served with the different viands. As the meal progressed, however, they began to thaw a bit, and

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when they had poured out the first cup of *saké* for each of us, they broke out, without warning, into a soft-toned chant, abounding with low trills. This, we were told, contained words expressing their wish for our future health and happiness; and similar outbursts of song were indulged in at intervals throughout the repast.

After dinner an adjournment was made to the lower chamber, where we distributed ourselves on cushions, whilst the *geisang* at the far end of the room proceeded to array themselves in their dancing costumes, attaching head-dresses and other garments over their existing ones. They then danced two at a time with considerable energy and *abandon*, twisting and turning about with most graceful movements to the accompaniment of a drum or two and several reed instruments played by men seated at the back of the room. We were treated to this pleasing spectacle for half-an-hour or so, when the performers, appearing somewhat exhausted, were regaled on beer after their exertions. This brought the entertainment to a close, and the young ladies departed in 'rickshaws for the theatre, where doubtless they had pressing engagements to keep with certain Korean gilded youths.

The next morning was spent visiting various Korean schools, and we found that the systems were much the same as those obtaining in Mukden, having been introduced from Japan. We were shown round by a Korean official and a Japanese interpreter, and were first taken to the Normal

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School, located in a fine new double-storied building, and attached to which was the Government Primary School.

The students of the Normal School (of whom there were about 112, studying to become teachers) varied in age from seventeen to twenty-five, and are all boarders. Entrance to this academy is obtained by examination, candidates coming up from the provinces as well as the capital. The students are all dressed in a light grey uniform, the coats buttoning high up round the neck, and receive their instruction in large airy class-rooms. They are provided with excellent model-rooms and small museums containing stuffed birds, insects, moths, butterflies, and so on, whilst the laboratories are well supplied with modern chemical and electrical appliances. Their dormitories — eight or ten students are accommodated in each — lavatory, bath-room, and dining-room were all scrupulously clean and fresh, and are heated during the winter months on the *kang* principle. Recreation is obtained in the adjoining playground, which is fitted up as an open-air gymnasium.

Practically within the same grounds is the Primary School, for boys from eight to seventeen years of age, all of whom are day-boys. There were some 190 of these youths, mostly bright, cheery little fellows with intelligent faces, and often exceedingly good-looking. They are taught the more elementary branches of education, such as geography, arithmetic (using our figures), Japanese, and the Chinese

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classics in Korean, etc., as a grounding for the High School, which we next visited.

This school was opened in 1900, and contains about 170 pupils, who enter at the age of fourteen or fifteen, and pursue a four years' course to fit them to be educated Korean gentlemen and officers. The education here also is entirely free, the cost being borne by the State, and amongst the scholars are sons of Korean nobles as well as those of the middle classes. We found some of the smaller boys studying chemistry in one class-room, more advanced pupils struggling with economics in another, whilst in other rooms geography and Chinese classics were being taught in a Korean sing-song manner.

From the High School we proceeded to the Language School, which was evidently a popular institution, for here some 580 pupils were studying various foreign languages, of which Japanese was first favourite with 338 students, after which came English with 139. Then followed Chinese with 61, German with 24, and French with 13. English is taught by an English master, assisted by Korean teachers, and German and French lessons are also conducted by masters of those two nationalities. We heard the English, German, and French pupils put through their paces by their respective instructors — reading aloud, being questioned, and answering in their particular language, and so on — and were most favourably impressed by the pronunciation and knowledge of the more advanced students. We also watched youngsters who had been learn-

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ing English less than a year, writing most clearly from dictation, and their spelling of the easy sentences read out to them was in most cases faultless. Altogether the methods in force appear to be eminently practical, judging from the satisfactory results obtained. But then the Korean boy is acknowledged to be very quick and intelligent in the direction of acquiring foreign tongues, for which he possesses a peculiar aptitude.

One could not help being struck also with their almost total absence of shyness or self-consciousness in the presence of foreigners, such as we were. There were no signs of diffidence when they were asked questions before us, and were expected to come out sharp with their replies, and their whole demeanour was natural and unaffected. The boys receive also a general education through the medium of the particular language they may have elected to study, so they obtain a pretty thorough instruction in foreign tongues.

The schools we had up to this point visited were those at which a free education was provided at the expense of the State, and we were now conducted to one the cost of which was borne by a private nobleman, the patron of the establishment. Here there were some 260 scholars, partly boarders and partly day-boys, varying in age from eight to eighteen, who receive much the same education as that provided at the Government High School. Admission is obtained by graduates from the Primary School or by an entrance examination. The boys

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had, unfortunately, finished their studies for the morning at the time of our arrival, so we were unable to see them in class, but were led to understand that, besides a general education, one foreign language also was taught, three-quarters of the boys selecting Japanese and the other quarter English. The happy-looking lads crowded round us as we proceeded on a tour of inspection round their buildings, and willingly fell in to be photographed when we expressed a wish for them to do so. They are very taking youngsters, these young Koreans, and one cannot help being attracted by their frank, open countenances, and their general tone and manner. It is much to be hoped that they may in the future succeed better than their fathers have done in helping to raise the status of the country from the low level to which it has fallen in recent unhappy times.

Although assured early in the morning that there were no girls' schools in Seoul, our conductors now, of their own accord, suggested that we might like to visit the Girls' High School, which was only opened in May, 1908, and which is now attended by about 100 girls, of ages ranging from eight to eighteen. We therefore drove off in our 'rickshaws to the locality in which it is situated, and obtained admission through a large gateway in the high wall by which the school grounds are shut off from the street. On passing through this, we entered an open courtyard, in which the girls, who were temporarily out of school, were playing games, while in one corner was a swing, and another part of the

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playground was marked out with a tennis-court. There appeared to be three Japanese mistresses, assisted by a Korean lady, who acted as interpreter, and they and their pupils evidently formed a very happy contented community, for the girls were joined in their games by their instructresses, and all were romping together in the most light-hearted of manners. The girls were all attired in little jackets, some of which were of brighter colours than those usually seen in the streets, being of green in some cases, pink in others, and yellow in others again. They all wore, in addition, long petticoats of thin black material fastened high up above the waist and falling well down over the loose trousers worn by all women in Korea. We were gracefully welcomed by the Japanese mistresses in the manner so characteristic of the ladies of that nation, and were shown by them over the class-rooms, model-rooms, and so on; and also some of the work done by the girls, such as the making of artificial forget-me-nots and other flowers, were exhibited, and specimens presented us. As school was over for the morning, we unfortunately were not able to see the pupils at work as well as at play, and so took our departure with very pleasant impressions of the future prospects of the Korean maidens of to-day, thanks to the education which is now within their reach.

This terminated our morning's round, and in the afternoon we adjourned to the Pagoda Gardens, where the band plays every Thursday afternoon at this time of year. Here we listened to some excel-

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lent music for about an hour and a half, played by a band of about forty Korean performers, trained and conducted by Herr Eckhardt, a German, who formerly instructed Japanese bands in Japan. The gardens were thronged with Koreans, who apparently thoroughly appreciate Western music, if one may judge from the rapt attention with which they followed the programme provided for their benefit. A fair sprinkling of the European community were also gathered here, and numbers of schoolboys put in an appearance after school-hours, and, squatting in rows in front of the stand, seemed to derive much pleasure from the music. With this gay scene our acquaintance with Seoul came to an end, for on the morrow we were to continue our travels to Fusan and Japan; we retired early to rest that night in anticipation of the railway journey and sea-voyage before us.

We were up betimes on the morning of October 9, and had our baggage conveyed to the Seidaimon Station, close to the hotel, in order to catch the 8.10 train for Fusan. We were able to book right through to Shimonoseki, the Japanese port, our ticket embracing dinner and breakfast next morning on the steamer. The train proceeded first to the Nondaimon Station, shortly after leaving which we crossed the Han River, a fine broad stream spanned by a bridge several hundred yards in length.

Throughout the day we traversed very hilly country intersected with numerous streams, flowing generally through narrow valleys, which necessitated

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stiff grades, and the construction of a considerable number of bridges and short lengths of tunnel. In many of these valleys rice was profusely cultivated, the steep slopes being neatly terraced and skilfully irrigated by means of small dams and open channels, which conveyed the clear limpid waters of the streams to the fields. Villages were passed at frequent intervals, nestling picturesquely at the foot of the hill-slopes, their thatched roofs being brightened by the deep scarlet of the chillies spread out on them to dry, and overrun, too, by climbing vegetable marrows, which, with their roots in the soil, clamber up the walls of the huts, and bring forth on the roof fruit of fine proportions. The persimmon also flourishes luxuriantly in the sheltered valleys, and trees loaded with the ripening fruit, of a beautiful rich orange colour, are a common feature of these Korean villages.

In spite of the soil of the valleys appearing highly fertile, the hillsides are for the most part singularly lacking in vegetation, and whole ridges quite devoid of trees are seen, while few are covered with anything more than a species of dwarf pine, little larger than shrubs. This has probably arisen from many generations of these village folk having cut down everything in the shape of a tree of any size in their neighbourhood in order to obtain fuel, and as the science of forestry was either unknown or totally neglected, the hills have not unnaturally suffered. The Korean, though lazy, is yet far from being a bad agriculturist, for he, too, appears quite capable

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of drawing with little labour what is necessary for his requirements from the generous earth. But with its fine climate, good rainfall, and richly watered fertile land, there are still greater possibilities before Korea. The Japanese are taking this matter up by establishing experimental farms throughout the country, and importing large numbers of their own farmers with a view to greatly increasing the areas under cultivation and improving the crops produced. It is not unlikely, therefore, that in the near future Korea will be in a position to export immense quantities of rice for the benefit of Japan and other countries. Doubtless, in course of time, also a Forestry Department will undertake the reforestation of the barren heights, which will not only add beauty to a singularly attractive region, but should prove of great commercial advantage as well in years to come.

For the last hour or so before darkness set in we followed closely the bank of a large stream, and shortly after 6.30 P.M. reached Fusan. We were met at the station by the Japanese Vice-Resident of the port, who had come to do the honours of the place to General Broadwood, and accompanied us on our ten minutes' walk round the end of the harbour to where the *Satsuma Maru*, a ship of 1,900 tons register, was lying alongside the wharf. Having seen us comfortably installed on board, he took his departure. Although the moon was just up, we were able to see little of the town, but were informed by the Vice-Resident that it was divided into two

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separate colonies, some 20,000 Japanese occupying the town at one end of the harbour, whilst about an equal number of Koreans were located in the one at the other end.

We cast off at 8 P.M., and at once commenced the sea-trip of some 120 miles across the Straits of Tsushima — the scene of the memorable naval battle between the Russian Baltic Fleet and the united Navy of Japan. It was a lovely evening, and the sea was like glass, so, when we came up on deck after dinner, we were able to enjoy a cigarette before turning in, while we watched the mountains of the Land of Morning Calm slowly fading from sight, bathed in the soft moonlight of a peaceful night.

REFORMS AND PROGRESS IN KOREA

BY VISCOUNT MASATAKE TERAUCHI

His Imperial Japanese Majesty's Residency-General

CHAPTER XVII

THE RELATIONS OF KOREA WITH JAPAN

DURING several decades, many suggestions were offered and sincere efforts exerted by Japan with a view to reforming the maladministration in the neighbouring Kingdom. The latter's gracious Sovereign and patriotic statesmen also attempted on several occasions to improve the condition of the country, and many enlightened laws and ordinances were enacted. But the jealousies prevailing among political parties, which were often entangled with the interests of rival foreign Powers, not only hindered reform measures but also retarded the progress that had been partially initiated. After the conclusion of the war with Russia, Japan's paramount position in Korea was gradually defined, and subsequently received recognition at the hands of the civilised countries of East and West alike. More recently, a New Agreement with Korea was concluded, by which a Resident-General, representing the Japanese Government in that country, was made the distinctly legalised repository of power to reform the Korean administration. It is now hoped that the progress of Korea, unhampered by political jealousies and international rivalries, which have been productive of so much harm in the

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past, will continue uninterruptedly, under the guidance of the Resident-General, aided by the united efforts of the Korean Government and its patriotic subjects; and further, that the Koreans, whose condition was greatly impoverished, will gradually enjoy prosperity and will assimilate the advantages of modern civilisation.

It may not be altogether useless to make a few remarks here upon the history of Korea's relations with Japan in the past, so as to render clear the inevitable character of the latter's present responsibility.

From the very beginning, it has been the unbroken policy of Japan to open the "Hermit Kingdom" to the world, to establish terms of neighbourly friendship with the peninsular nation, to strengthen the Korean Imperial House, and to maintain the independence of the country. After the attempts to break down Korea's seclusion — made by France, in 1866, by the United States, in 1871, and later by Japan, in 1872 — had all failed, General Takamori Saigo urged the immediate despatch of an expedition to Korea to give effect to that policy. But Mr. Ito (now Prince and Resident-General) having been commissioned, together with M. Boissonade (a French jurist, then legal adviser to the Japanese Government), to investigate the conditions existing in Korea, a majority of the Cabinet voted to try conciliation and diplomacy in preference to a display of force. Accordingly, Japanese envoys were despatched, and, in the sequel of patient efforts,

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they succeeded in concluding a treaty of amity and commerce on February 26, 1876, in which Japan recognised that "Korea, being an independent country, enjoys the same sovereign rights as Japan." Western Powers were not slow to follow this example.

With the hope of making Korea's independence a reality, Japan employed all the resources of friendly suggestion to induce the former to adopt modern civilised methods, to reform her corrupt administration, to reorganise her police system, and to strengthen her military defences, so as to be able to fulfil her treaty obligations. In consequence, however, of jealousy between political parties, nothing resulted but plots and counterplots. *Coups d'état* and insurrections came in rapid succession. The Japanese Legation was twice attacked: once, in 1882, by the mob combined with the soldiery, who are habitually used in Korea as political tools; and once, in 1884, by Korean troops co-operating with Chinese. On each occasion the Japanese Minister, with his wife and children, had to fly from Seoul for safety. Nevertheless, the differences between Japan and Korea, in which China was inextricably mixed up, were settled without any serious conflict by conventions concluded at Chemulpo, in 1882, and at Seoul and Tientsin, in 1885. Thereafter, however, Japan's endeavours to maintain Korea's independence and to carry out reforms in her corrupt administration were so greatly obstructed by China that the two countries drifted into war, with the result that China had to recognise Korean inde-

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pendence by the treaty of Shimonoseki, in 1895. Japan then reverted to her programme of friendly advice. She urged Korea to reform her corrupt administration, which endangered life and property and which must cause foreign complications calculated to imperil ultimately the integrity of the Kingdom. Following these sincere counsels, the Korean Government engaged a number of Japanese advisers in several branches of officialdom, and enacted various laws for the improvement of internal administration. But, after a brief period of service, the Japanese advisers were dismissed owing to political intrigues as well as to the foreign complication of 1895-6. Thus all the reform measures hitherto initiated were arrested. Korean political history was a perpetual repetition of the same tale: plot, counterplot, insurrection, and foreign complications.

Japan was again compelled to engage in a costly war, this time with Russia, largely on account of Korean affairs. But Japan had now realised that Korea was not capable of governing herself, and that the policy of maintaining her independence could not be pursued without certain modifications. Indeed, as the Resident-General declared in a speech made in July, 1907, "the identity of Korean and Japanese interests in the Far East and the paramount character of Japanese interests in Korea will not permit Japan to leave Korea to the care of any other foreign country: she must assume the charge herself."

Thus Japan took the responsibility of intervention

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in Korean affairs, after having given the Koreans ample opportunity to prove their fitness for self-government, and after having found them wholly unprepared for the task. Subsequently to the outbreak of war with Russia, Japan, by successive agreements, obtained entire control of Korea's foreign affairs. This fact being afterwards recognised by the other Treaty Powers, they duly withdrew their diplomatic representatives from Seoul. With respect to domestic affairs, Japan has assumed advisory supervision of the general administration, but, in military matters, if "the welfare of the Imperial House or the territorial integrity of Korea" is endangered by the aggression of a third Power, or by internal disturbances, Japan is to have direct control. Further, the "control and administration of the post, telegraph, and telephone services in Korea (except the telephone service exclusively pertaining to the Department of the Imperial Household)" have been transferred to the Japanese Government.

In addition to assuming direct control of Korean affairs, the Resident-General, representing the Japanese Government, commenced faithfully to exercise his advisory functions in the general administration. As to the details of his procedure, he caused the Korean Government to engage a number of Japanese advisers, councillors, or assistant-councillors, both for the Imperial Household and for the various Departments of State, in addition to a financial adviser and a diplomatic adviser, who had been

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engaged before the establishment of the Residency-General. Technical experts were also engaged for the public works and for the model experimental farms where instruction was given in industry, agriculture, and forestry. In matters relating to the reform of local administration, it was arranged that the Vice-Residents of the Japanese local Residencies should act as councillors to Provincial Governors; and Finance Councillors were distributed among the thirteen provinces to act as advisers to the Provincial Tax Supervisors. Assistant-Councillors were to stand in the same relation to Tax Assessors in important districts. As to police administration, in addition to a Police Advisory Board, having its headquarters in the Central Government, there were attached to each of the thirteen provincial capitals similar police advisory boards, under which were branch boards, the Japanese advisory police working with the Korean police side by side. For the administration of justice, a Japanese legal councillor, or assistant-councillor, was attached to each of the courts, local and high, in Seoul, and to each of the courts in the Provincial Governments as well as to magistracies of prefectures and districts. Thus no radical changes were introduced into the old Korean administrative organisation. On the contrary, the Resident-General tried to improve the existing Korean administration by general guidance under the various Japanese advisory bodies. The Central Government had competence to enact any necessary laws and ordinances for reform

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measures, and to instruct Local Governments to act in accordance with advice, while local officials were expected to pay due attention to advice given by the Japanese councillors.

But the operation of this system proved unsatisfactory, owing to the fact that the Korean officials paid little respect to the advice given, so long as they were free to adopt or reject it at will. Moreover, the incapacity of Korean officials and the habitually crooked methods of the Korean Government greatly handicapped the success of the projected programme. Thus it resulted that advisory guidance had practically little or no effect in bringing about the desired changes in the old-time maladministration of affairs. So many evils and abuses had taken deep root that more direct management on the part of the Resident-General, together with some modifications in the Government organisation and the employment of capable officials, became vitally important, since otherwise the welfare and prosperity of the Korean people could not be promoted. These experiences and considerations compelled the conclusion of a new Agreement. It was signed on July 24, 1907. By it the Resident-General was given more direct participative power in the general administration. He acquired initiative as well as consultory competence to enact and enforce laws and ordinances, to appoint and remove Korean officials, and to place capable Japanese subjects in the ranks of Korean officialdom. The Agreement provided specially for differentiation of

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the Judiciary and the Executive, as much corruption existed under the old system which invested both the provincial governors and the district magistrates with judicial functions.

So important was this Agreement that it should be regarded as the new and fundamental principle for the reform of the Korean Administration, in pursuance of which object so many measures had hitherto proved abortive. Therefore it will be well to quote at length the provisions of the Agreement:—

“1. The Government of Korea shall act under the guidance of the Resident-General in respect to reforms in administration.

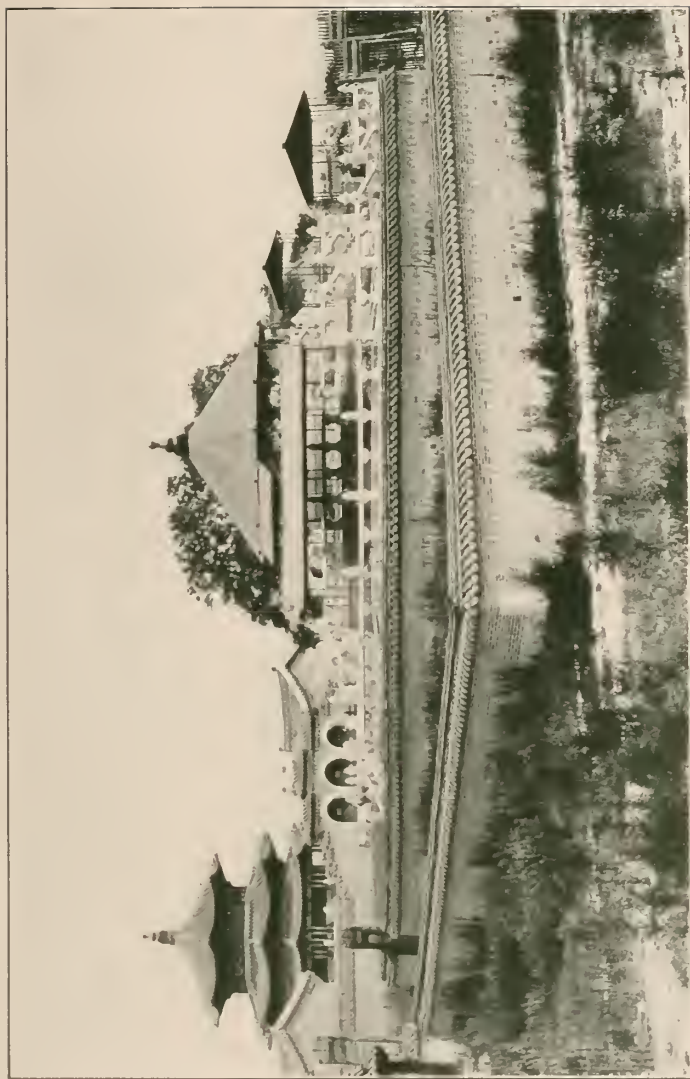
“2. The Government of Korea engage not to enact any laws, ordinances, or regulations, or take any important measures of administration, without the previous assent of the Resident-General.

“3. The judicial affairs in Korea shall be set apart from the affairs of ordinary administration.

“4. The appointment and dismissal of all high officials in Korea shall be made upon the concurrence of the Resident-General.

“5. The Government of Korea shall appoint as Korean officials Japanese subjects recommended by the Resident-General.”

By the Convention concluded on November 17, 1905, the Japanese Government was to be represented at the Imperial Korean Court by a *Tōkan* (Resident-General) “primarily for the purpose of taking charge of and directing matters relating to diplomatic affairs,” and this *Tōkan* was to have



THE TEMPLE OF HEAVEN WHERE THE EMPEROR PRAYED FOR
RAIN AND THE NATIONAL BLESSINGS

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“the right of private and personal audience” with the Korean Emperor, while *Rijikan* (Residents) were to be stationed at the several open ports and at such other important places in Korea as the Japanese Government might deem necessary, in order primarily to exercise “the powers and functions hitherto appertaining to Japanese Consuls in Korea.” The detailed organisation and functions of the *To-Kan-Fu* (the Residency-General) and the *Riji-cho* (Residencies) were first set forth in Imperial Ordinance No. 267, issued on December 20, 1905, and were amended by Imperial Ordinance No. 295, issued soon after the conclusion of the New Agreement of 1907. Directly appointed by the Japanese Emperor, the Resident-General is responsible to none but the Sovereign of Japan. He addresses the Japanese Throne and seeks Imperial sanction for all matters through the Prime Minister, but in matters relating to Foreign Affairs, he must first communicate with the Minister of Foreign Affairs. According to the first Imperial Ordinance, he had “general control of all business relating to foreigners and foreign consulates in Korea, with the exception of such as pass through the foreign Representatives resident” in Japan; he had to “oversee all administrative business carried out by the Imperial (Japanese) authorities and officers in Korea” which falls within the purview of the treaty stipulations, and he had to “discharge all functions of supervision hitherto devolving on the Imperial authorities.” The New Agreement confers on the Residency-General more

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direct powers over the internal affairs of Korea, and the functions of the Resident-General are provided for in general terms and in a wider sense in the amended Ordinance, which reads as follows: — “The Resident-General shall represent the Imperial Government of Japan in Korea and control general political affairs in accordance with treaties, laws, and ordinances.” The military power is also vested in the Resident-General, and he has competence to issue orders direct to the Commander-in-Chief of the Japanese garrison troops in Korea for the employment of military force, if he deem “such a course necessary for the better preservation of peace and order in Korea.” In discharging his functions, the Resident-General had originally under him a Director General, a Director of Foreign Affairs, a Director of Agricultural, Commercial, and Industrial Affairs, a Director of Police Affairs, a Private Secretary, seven Secretaries, two Police Inspectors, five Engineers, ten Interpreters, and 45 subordinate officials. By the amended Ordinance, the organization of the Residency-General has been modified, so that the offices of Director of Foreign Affairs, Director of Agricultural, Commercial, and Industrial Affairs, and Director of Police Affairs have been abolished; while a *Fuku-Tōkan* (Vice-Resident General) and two permanent Councillors have been created. There are also slight changes in the number of the other officials. But there is no alteration with regard to the Director General: his functions continue to be the direction of general

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affairs in the Residency-General. By the New Agreement the functions of the Resident-General being largely increased, the creation of the office of Vice-Resident-General, to assist the Resident-General and to act in the latter's stead in case of absence or inability, is very important. The Vice-Resident-General also is appointed direct by the Emperor. One of the permanent Councillors is to be Chief of the Department of Foreign Affairs, and the other, Chief of the Supervisory Department. In addition to these officials the Vice-Ministers of the Korean Cabinet and of the Imperial Household are *ex-officio* Councillors in the Residency-General. Under the Resident-General are the Resident-General's Secretariat, the charge of which is taken by the Director General; a Department of Foreign Affairs, a Supervisory Department, and a Department of Local Affairs. The Resident-General's Secretariat is again divided into three sections, which deal respectively with Documents, Accounts, and Personnel.

Moreover, under the Resident-General are a Bureau of Communications, a Railway Bureau, a Forest Undertaking Station, and an Appeal Court of Japan in Korea, the last of which entertains all cases appealed from the courts maintained by Japanese Residencies.

The Japanese Consulates, or their branch offices in Korea, were converted into Residencies in January, 1906. The Residents stationed at Seoul, the open ports, and other important places are to

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discharge, under the orders and supervision of the Resident-General, "the duties originally pertaining to Consuls in Korea, together with such duties as the treaties and laws require Residents to perform."

The control of Korean foreign affairs having been transferred to the Japanese Government, the functions of the Korean local authorities relating to foreigners and foreign Consuls have been assumed by the Resident. That is to say, the issuing of title deeds of land, and the collecting of rents or land taxes in the foreign settlements, hitherto done by Korean Superintendents at treaty ports, have all been entrusted to the Japanese Residents. The Residents may issue passports to foreigners who desire to travel in the interior or outside treaty limits, and to Korean officials or private persons proceeding abroad. The Resident is also concerned with foreigners claiming proprietary rights of real estate or mortgage rights in regions outside treaty limits, under "the Regulations for certifying the Proprietorship of Lands or Houses." These Regulations went into force from December 1, 1906. They provide that, if one of the parties concerned in a contract of sale, gift, exchange, or mortgage of real estate is a foreigner, the contract should first be certified by the Korean local authorities, and again examined and certified by the nearest Resident, otherwise the contract can not be regarded as valid. When both parties are foreigners, the Resident certifies the contract and gives notice of the same to the local authorities for registration. By "the

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Regulations for the Enforcement of Foreclosing Mortgages upon Lands and Houses," which have been in effect since February 1, 1907, the Korean local authorities, when a dispute arises between a native debtor and an alien creditor with regard to foreclosing a mortgage, are to settle the case with the approval of the nearest Resident. If the debtor is a foreigner and the creditor a native, the Resident settles the question with the approval of the local authorities. When both parties are foreigners, the Resident settles the question by himself and then notifies the Korean authorities of his decision.

Concerning the improvement of local administration, a branch office of a Residency was established in September, 1906, at each place where a seat of provincial government was located, and a Vice-Resident had to act as adviser to the Governor in reforms of local administration. But as a result of the New Agreement, a Japanese subject being now appointed as secretary to each provincial government, the above branch office of the Residency became unnecessary, and ceased to exist on the 31st December, 1907.

Again, as results of the New Agreement, the Korean Government reorganised the police administration, appointing Japanese subjects as Chiefs of Police Bureaus and as Inspector General of the Metropolitan Police Board; while the Japanese police, formerly engaged in police advisory bodies, became Korean police, and the Japanese police

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force hitherto maintained by the Residencies was amalgamated with the Korean police on the 2nd of September, 1906. Residents, however, still retain powers of command and superintendence over the police appointed by the Korean Government, so far as concerns affairs relating to Japanese subjects in Korea.

In the place of Chief Police Inspector, each Residency has created an office of Chief Prison Inspector, who has charge of prison affairs relating to Japanese criminals in Korea.

The so-called "Open door policy" in Korea has been from the very beginning maintained by the Japanese Government. In both the treaties of alliance between England and Japan, concluded on January 30, 1902, and on August 12, 1905, respectively, adherence to that policy was a fundamental key note of the engagements. In the latter treaty especially Japan solemnly and explicitly pledged herself to observe "the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations," while Great Britain recognised the right of Japan to take measures for "the guidance, control, and protection of Korea." Although Japan, in accordance with the Convention concluded on November 17, 1905, assumed the entire control of the foreign affairs of Korea and undertook the duty of watching over "the execution of the treaties actually existing between Korea and other Powers," five days after the conclusion of this Convention, namely, on November 22, 1905, a circular note was addressed

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to the Treaty Powers, in which the Imperial Government of Japan declared that "in assuming charge of the foreign relations of Korea and undertaking the duty of watching over the execution of the existing treaties of that country, they will see that those treaties are maintained and respected, and they also engage not to prejudice in any way the legitimate commercial and industrial interests of these Powers in Korea."

Since the establishment of the Residency-General in Seoul, the Resident-General has faithfully observed this principle of his Government, and exerted his power and influence along the line of the "Open door policy." For example, the privilege of mining in Korea was not previously given to aliens, except by special grant in rare cases. But as a result of the operation of the mining laws and their detailed regulations, enacted, in 1906, by the advice of the Residency-General, mining concessions became open to any alien on making due application; and the right of transferring the concession by sale, gift, succession, or mortgage was fully secured. Such was also the case with the holding of real estate. A provision in the Korean criminal law prohibits Koreans from selling real estate (private or public), or any forest land outside the treaty limits, to aliens, either directly or indirectly. Nevertheless, the laws for certifying the proprietorship of houses and lands and the foreclosing of mortgages create competence to recognise the right of aliens to own real estate under certain conditions.

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Debt claims and complaints by foreigners against the Korean Court or Government were not promptly or satisfactorily settled until the Resident-General began to take charge of matters concerning foreigners. This may be illustrated by reference to a claim for a large sum preferred by a foreign firm in Seoul against the Korean Court on account of imported rice, railway material, and ammunition. The affair had been long outstanding when, application having been made to the Residency-General, the latter proposed to have it settled by a commission of inquiry, consisting of members of the Finance Bureau of the Imperial Household, of the Residency-General, and of the Consulate whose national was concerned. The investigation lasted several months, and it was finally decided that a due amount should be paid to the firm. Moreover, claims for salary made by two foreign engineers in the service of the Imperial Household, and by an employee; a claim by a foreign bank in connection with a discounted note, and a claim on account of provisions supplied to the Imperial Household by a Chinese firm were all satisfactorily settled through the good offices of the Residency-General.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE ADMINISTRATION

ALTHOUGH Japan has assumed protectory responsibility in Korea, yet the strengthening of the Imperial House and the maintenance of its dignity have been, and ever will be, one of her fundamental principles. In the Protocol concluded on February 23, 1904, the Japanese Government guaranteed "the safety and tranquillity of the Imperial House of Korea." Again, in the convention concluded on November 17, 1905, when the right of establishing the Residency-General at Seoul was secured, the Japanese Government declared that it undertook "to maintain the welfare and dignity of the Imperial House of Korea." Soon after the Resident-General had assumed his duties in Seoul, he repeatedly advised the Korean Court to clearly differentiate the functions of the Court from those of the State, their confusion having been a chief cause of the weakness and corruption of the Korean Government and of the Imperial Court as well.

The separation of the State from the Imperial Household had been attempted previously soon after the Chino-Japanese War, under Japanese advisers, by the enactment of regulations for the Cabinet and

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for the Department of the Imperial Household. As a result of these measures, the Imperial Household Department was created for the first time, the sphere of its activities being confined purely to Household matters, administrative functions being left entirely to the Cabinet, and the Minister of the Imperial Household not being included among the members of the Cabinet. But these reform measures were rendered wholly inoperative by the *coup d'état* of 1895-1896, which resulted in the Imperial Household soon again becoming confused with the Executive. Administrative officials were appointed through the Minister of the Imperial Household; offices were often sold by him, or by influential officials in the Imperial Household, without reference to the Minister of State concerned, and not only were taxes collected by officials despatched from the Imperial Household, but also the sphere of national finance was in other ways frequently invaded by them. This confusion produced innumerable evils and abuses in the Imperial Household. Many thousands of incapable officials were appointed and many superfluous offices created, some of the latter keeping separate accounts and collecting revenue and paying expenses independently. Sales of offices, bribes, and confiscations of private property were quite prevalent among influential officials in the Imperial Household. Further, although theoretically the Minister of the Imperial Household controlled all officials under him and alone had competence to address the Throne and obtain Imperial sanction, yet many

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officials, favourites of the Emperor, independently and freely approached the Sovereign and irresponsibly gave counsel to His Majesty. The Imperial Palace was moreover frequented by diviners, fortune-tellers, and other persons, men and women, of obscure origin and questionable character, their sole object being to cheat and extract money from the Imperial purse, in co-operation with native and foreign schemers. Political as well as personal dissensions occasioned plots and counterplots even within the Palace itself. In the face of these perilous conditions the Resident-General could not remain silent. Hence, as stated in the report for 1906, the Residency-General, having obtained the Imperial consent, caused, in 1906, the Police Adviser to station constables at each gate of the Palace, in order to keep off persons of questionable character, and at the same time the "Palace Precincts Ordinance" was promulgated, by which passes were to be issued only to known persons who had legitimate business with the Court.

Thus the Resident-General used his best exertions to purify the chronic state of corruption which had become so deeply rooted in the Imperial Household, and to improve the management of Court affairs, through the intervention of advisers and councillors. But inasmuch as the Court was free to accept or reject this advice at will, the reforms in the Imperial Household were not satisfactorily carried into effect until the conclusion of the New Agreement. As a result of the latter, the Resident-General acquired

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the right of more direct intervention in the affairs of the Imperial House, and Japanese officials were nominated to important offices in the Court. New regulations for the Imperial Household were promulgated on November 29, 1907. By them the Minister of the Household alone has the right to address the Throne and obtain its sanction in matters concerning the Imperial Household, and, whereas twenty-four offices had existed in the previous organisation, these were consolidated or reduced to thirteen, an establishment of several thousand officials being cut down to, at most, one-third of that number, while accounts hitherto kept independently at various offices were brought under the sole management of the *Nai-chan Won* (Bureau of Accounts).

As the properties owned or controlled by the Imperial House had fallen into a disordered condition, a "Bureau of Readjustment of the Imperial House Property," under the superintendence of the Minister of the Household, was also established in November, 1907. This Bureau is to conduct all business relating to the readjustment, maintenance, and management of properties, movable or immovable, of the Imperial House.

Again, the properties owned or managed by the Imperial House, being much confused or confounded with those belonging to the State, an "Imperial and State Property Investigation Committee" has been established to examine into the condition of the properties of the Imperial House and the State, to define their respective ownership and to settle mat-

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ters relating to their readjustment. Its *ex-officio* committee consisted of the Vice-Ministers of the Imperial Household, and of the Department of Finance and the Interior, under the Presidency of the Minister of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry.

The Korean administrative system in the Central Government, like the Central Government in China, was conducted by a board consisting of Ministers of State and other influential personages in the Imperial Court. It was called the *Wi-jong-pu* (Deliberative Board). Being essentially what its title implies, namely, a deliberative body, its head Minister *Wi-jong* had no adequate power to control the administration of the various departments or to maintain uniformity or harmony among them, his duties being little more than to preside at the council meetings. Under such a system, even the detailed regulations of a particular administrative department having to be submitted for approval by the *Wi-jong-pu*, each Minister of State had little discretionary power, so that promptness and efficiency were hardly to be expected. It naturally resulted that many superfluous offices came into existence and incompetent officials were appointed. Furthermore, the confusion between the State and the Court, mentioned above, constantly hampered the execution of administrative measures.

In the reforms of 1895, a modern system of administration was first inaugurated by establishing a Cabinet, in which the Minister of the Imperial

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Household was not included, the object being to draw a clear line of demarcation between the Court and the State. But this reform was defeated by the *coup d'état* of 1896, the Cabinet being then abolished and the old system of deliberative government restored by an Imperial edict issued on September 24th of that year. Thereafter, according to a body of amended regulations for the organisation of the Deliberative Board, issued as an Imperial edict on June 16, 1898, the Minister of the Imperial Household was again included among the members of the Cabinet, the old confusion between the affairs of the State and those of the Imperial Household being thus recreated.

After the Russo-Japanese War, the Japanese Financial Adviser to the Korean Government first suggested reforming the administrative organisation from the fiscal side. That is to say, reforms were confined to reduction of unnecessary officials; the abolition or amalgamation of different parts of the State establishment and the redistribution of official functions being relegated to the future. Thus, under the provisions of regulations relating to the establishment of the Central Government, which were issued in March, 1905, the number of officials was reduced from 751 to 571, and although the State saved only 40,000 yen by this reform, the honesty of the officials was secured to a large extent by increasing their salaries. Moreover, the functions of the Minister of the Imperial Household were by regulation confined to affairs of the Household only, and

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thus the separation of the State from the Court was attempted.

Acting on the advice of the Residency-General, the Korean Government improved its central administration by the operation of new regulations relating to Cabinet organisation (issued on June 16, 1907). The term "Cabinet" was substituted for that of *Wi-jong-pu*. It consisted of a Minister President of State and Ministers of Home Affairs, Finance, Education, War, Justice, and Agricultural, Commercial, and Industrial Affairs. As for the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, it was transferred to Japan by the convention concluded on November 17, 1905. The Minister President of State (Prime Minister) is empowered to control the Ministers of the several Departments and to maintain harmony among them. Every law or Imperial Ordinance has to be countersigned by the Prime Minister and the Minister, or Ministers, of State concerned in the matter, and the signatories are responsible to the Sovereign for the measure.

According to the regulations for the organisation of the various Departments of State, promulgated in December, 1907, though the Minister of each Department is under the control of the Prime Minister and must obtain Imperial sanction through the latter in appointing or removing high officials in his Department, he has ample discretionary power to issue administrative decrees within his jurisdiction and to appoint or dismiss subordinate officials. The function of the Vice-Minister of State, who is

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to be a Japanese and from whom administrative efficiency is expected, is "to assist the Minister of State, to take charge of Departmental affairs, and to supervise all business of the Department."

Soon after the Resident-General had assumed his duties in Korea, he was confronted by the question of local administration, among many others. As stated in the report for 1906, a special commission, consisting of several Korean officials and two Japanese from the staff of the Resident-General, was established under the direction of the Resident-General in order to draft measures for the improvement of local administration, by thoroughly investigating the root of the evils and abuses incidental to the old system, while, at the same time, being careful to avoid radical changes such as might provoke needless popular antagonism. This investigation found expression in the organic laws of the local administration, embodied in Imperial edicts and decrees of the Department of Home Affairs, issued in September, 1906. According to these laws, the offices of crown commissioner and of superintendent in the treaty ports were abolished, and districts containing open ports were elevated to prefectures, making the total administrative divisions of the country 13 provinces, 11 prefectures, and 333 districts. Although, under this system, provincial governors were to be controlled by the Central Government, and prefects and magistrates by the provincial governors, a certain measure of local autonomy was recognised, such as a governor's power to levy

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local taxes and to issue administrative decrees, the same authority being given to prefects and magistrates within their jurisdictions. As corruption in connection with the sale and purchase of offices and the appointment of unqualified officials cried aloud for remedy, a "Local Civil Service Supervisory Committee" was established; and it was enacted that the appointment of all local administrative high officials must be subject to examination and approval by this Committee. In order to encourage honesty among officials, salaries were increased all round, and an entertaining allowance was given to principal officials.

By the reform measures of 1906, the local administration under the Japanese advisers was expected to improve gradually as compared with its former condition, and was also expected to prepare the way for a system of local autonomy, the old idea of decentralisation being preserved. It was soon found, however, that a more centralised administration was needed for the practical welfare of Korea, so long as her political, social, and economic conditions were in a primitive stage; and that, for purposes of local administrative reform, guidance more direct than mere advice was necessary. Hence, after the conclusion of the New Agreement, well qualified Japanese subjects have been appointed to the posts of Secretary (one), Chief Police Inspector (one), and Clerks (three) in each provincial government. Further, the provincial governors' power of levying local taxes, which had been conferred by the previ-

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ous regulations, was rescinded; their jurisdiction in matters relating to weights and measures and mineral products was transferred to the Central Government; and the power of prefects and local magistrates to issue administrative decrees was also revoked. The functions of the Secretary (Japanese) in the provincial governments, by whose efforts large improvement in the efficiency of local administration is hoped for, are primarily to assist the Governor; to act in the latter's capacity in case of his absence or temporary inability to discharge duty; and to have charge of all matters relating to local administration, charity, religion, ceremonies, public works, education, foreigners, and the encouragement of industry. The functions of the Chief Police Inspector (Japanese) are to have charge of matters relating to police, sanitation, census, and emigration.

CHAPTER XIX

THE JUDICIARY

IN Oriental countries, generally speaking, the judiciary is not separate from the executive, and this used to be specially true in Korea, where provincial governors and local magistrates commonly discharged judicial functions in their executive capacity. Judicial reforms were begun first under Japanese advisers soon after the China-Japan War. A code for the constitution of law courts was promulgated on March 25, 1895. It provided for the establishment of a special court to deal with crimes committed by members of the Imperial family, a court of cassation, circuit courts, "treaty-port courts" which should administer justice in cases of an international nature, and local courts. At the same time, a law school was founded for the purpose of training judges, public procurators, and clerks. This organisation existed on paper only: the work of putting it into practice was largely neglected. Excepting the establishment of the Court of Cassation and the Seoul Local Court, the other courts mentioned above never came into actual existence. The provincial governors, prefects, superintendents of treaty ports, and district magistrates continued to assume the name, and discharge the

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functions, of judges in administering justice. Civil cases were for the most part determined according to the amount of the bribe offered by plaintiff or defendant, and criminal cases by the arbitrary will of the judge. Until very recently there was no such thing as a barrister to defend a suspected criminal; a witness was in many cases considered a *particeps criminis*; and torture was commonly resorted to as a means of procuring evidence required by the magistrate. Under such a state of things the conviction of innocent people and the confiscation of their property were common occurrences. Even in such independent tribunals as the Court of Cassation and the Seoul Local Court, judges and procurators, being utterly deficient in legal knowledge and training, often delivered wrong judgments. Under the treaty stipulations Korean courts can entertain actions brought by foreigners against the people of the country, but as the judicial tribunals are held in ridicule by foreigners, cases against Korean subjects were almost sure to be made international questions, and thus carried into diplomatic channels.

Impressed by the urgent necessity of protecting life and property, the Resident-General, while avoiding any introduction of radical reforms in the organisation of the Korean courts, caused the Korean Government, as stated in the last report (*i.e.* for 1906), to engage a Japanese councillor and assistants in the Department of Judicial Affairs, who should take an active part in the administration of judicial business and superintend the revision of laws and

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ordinances. In addition to increasing the number of judges and clerks in the Court of Cassation and the Seoul Local Court, a Japanese legal assistant was attached to each of these courts, to aid in the proper administration of justice. A Japanese legal assistant was also appointed to each court connected with the offices of governors or prefectures, though governors and prefects still retained their judicial functions as heretofore; and a Japanese Assistant Police-Adviser was stationed in each district to act as legal assistant in the court of that district magistrate. These appointments of Japanese with advisory powers to Korean courts produced some good results. Thus the system of torture was abolished; the arrest of a person on a civil charge was suspended; the detention of alleged offenders in the court-house was stopped; and all judges were strictly charged to keep the records of decisions rendered by them.

But so long as the judicial branch of the Government was not separated from the executive, the evils and abuses of the old system, which are so deeply rooted, could not be fully removed.

By the New Agreement the Resident-General secured from the Korean Government a pledge to separate the judiciary from the executive, as the first step in the direction of a complete judicial reform. The Korean Government agreed also to appoint Japanese subjects to the following offices in the Korean courts which were to be established:—

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1. A chief justice, a chief procurator, two judges, and five clerks in the Court of Cassation.

2. A chief justice, two judges, a chief procurator, an assistant procurator, and five clerks in each of the three Courts of Appeal.

3. In the eight Local Courts, the chief justices, the senior procurators, thirty-two judges, and eighty clerks.

4. A judge and a clerk in each District Court.

Regulations relating to the organisation of the law courts were finally enacted on December 27, 1907. According to these Regulations the country is to have 125 courts altogether, viz: — A Court of Cassation, or Supreme Court, in Seoul; Courts of Appeal in Seoul, Ping-yang, and Taiku, respectively; eight Local Courts, one at Seoul and one in each of the capitals of the other seven provinces of the old administrative division; and finally, 115 District Courts in the principal districts throughout the country. Korea has adopted the so-called “three trial system,” which is that in practice in Japan as well as in continental Europe. The District and Local Courts are to hear civil and criminal cases in first instance. The former tribunals deal with minor offences and with civil suits involving sums not exceeding two hundred *yen*, but with the right of appeal to a Local Court. A case originating in a Local Court goes up to a Court of Appeal, while a case brought up from a District Court to a Local Court must be referred direct to the Court of Cassation. The Court of Cassation has jurisdiction also

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in matters carried up from the Courts of Appeal, and has sole jurisdiction in first and last instance over all criminal cases brought against any member of the Imperial House. In the District Courts the hearing is to be before a single judge, but in the other courts the bench is collegiate.

The Koreans had little or no conception of private rights as these were understood elsewhere in the Orient. Thus such maladministration existed for a long time that public officials were accustomed to pay only scant respect to the private rights of the people, and the latter, on their side, dared not complain against official extortion. In short, civil law guaranteeing private rights had practically no existence. This is undoubtedly one of the main causes of the people's impoverishment. Although the existing code of criminal law was enacted as late as April, 1905, it is still intolerably severe in the punishments it prescribes, nor is it free from defects in many other ways. The death penalty is not confined to wilful murder, but extends even to the case of thieves who enter the Imperial Palace or a temple, and treason, manslaughter, and desecration of graves are the offences most commonly visited with capital punishment. On the other hand, many penalties may be lightened or commuted on payment of money. Moreover, in the administration of these laws, so little independence is enjoyed by the judiciary that, in case of doubt as to proper application of the laws, the judges in the Court of Cassation or any other court must consult the Minister of the Depart-

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ment of Justice and decide in accordance with his opinion, which is final.

Consuls or Residents in Korea have civil as well as criminal jurisdiction over the life and property of their nationals by virtue of the treaty stipulations. That is to say, foreign offenders in criminal cases, using their consular courts, are protected against any arbitrary proceedings of the local courts and against the severe punishments of native laws, while foreign defendants in civil cases are guaranteed against any arbitrary decisions of native courts. Subjects or citizens of the Treaty Powers are also exempted from certain forms of taxes, and from other administrative control by native officials. Taking into consideration the historical conditions which existed in Korea at the time when the treaties were concluded, it was quite natural that civilised nations should have wished to make their consular jurisdiction as extensive as possible, even though they pushed it beyond the limits of treaty stipulations.

Such privileges and exemptions, however, are not free from disadvantages. These were hardly noticed during the period when the number of foreign residents was small, and their requirements were relatively simple; whereas the importance of maintaining adequate safeguards against the arbitrary proceedings of the native Government was very palpable. But with the progressive tide of reforms, the conditions of Korean life are changing year by year. Improved methods of government, central and local, are gradually taking root throughout the country; modern

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law courts, with competent Japanese judges and procurators associated, are steadily replacing the old tribunals. It is a recognised fact that under the guidance of the Resident-General, with the co-operation of Japanese subjects who have been recommended for their special fitness, the Korean Administration is changing the situation heretofore existing. The importance of maintaining consular jurisdiction has thus greatly diminished; and it is now rather the case that certain inconveniences resulting from its continuance are becoming palpable.

Many missionaries, some of them helping to maintain schools and hospitals, are residing in towns and villages in the interior quite outside treaty limits; many hundreds of miners — Americans, Chinese, and Japanese — are employed in mines; several foreigners now own real estate in places even outside treaty limits; more particularly, a number of Japanese and Chinese are engaging in agriculture in the interior of the country. So soon, however, as the Korean Government ceases to be arbitrary, law-abiding subjects and citizens of foreign nations should desiderate its positive protection in their activities, in lieu of the purely negative preventive system now prevailing. Furthermore, the differences of procedure observed by different nationalities in their Consular courts discourage native as well as foreign plaintiffs from having recourse to the laws administered there. Again, in appeal cases, the inconvenience of recourse to appeal courts constitutes a similar discouragement, seeing that an

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appeal case under British or American consular jurisdiction in Korea must be carried to Shanghai, and, in the case of the French tribunals, to Saigon.

The Japanese Government, since the reform of the Korean Police organisation in September, 1907, has relied upon the Korean Police force, and abolished its own, hitherto maintained in the former Consulates and subsequent Residencies. As Japan has predominating interests in Korea, she should take the lead in withdrawing her Consular jurisdiction. The United States, at the very outset of her entrance into treaty relations with Korea, in May, 1882, generously encouraged the Korean Government by promising to withdraw her Consular jurisdiction under the following stipulations: —

“It is, however, mutually agreed between the High Contracting Powers, that whenever the King of Chosen shall have so far modified and reformed the statutes and judicial procedure of his kingdom that, in the judgment of the United States, they conform to the laws and courts in the United States, the right of extraterritorial jurisdiction of the United States’ citizens in Chosen shall be abandoned, and thereafter United States citizens, when within the limits of the kingdom of Chosen, shall be subject to the jurisdiction of the native authorities.”

A similar provision is made by treaty, declaration, or protocol with Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Belgium, Austria, Hungary and Denmark.

Prison administration as heretofore carried out in Korea is a matter almost too unsavoury to describe,

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The most common forms of punishment were beating, imprisonment, and confinement in the stocks. The Penal Code is full of directions for administering floggings, which were often so severe as to render the victim a cripple for life, if he did not die under the infliction. Major offences, even robbery, are for the most part regarded as punishable by death, and although capital punishment, which formerly meant decapitation, has recently been replaced by hanging, yet even this latter form of execution has been most cruelly carried out, being in fact slow strangulation, so that the victim is in pain for half-an-hour or more. Women convicted of major crimes were often executed by poisons calculated to inflict terrible agony before death ensued. Although regulations for prison administration more or less on the basis of modern principles were enacted in January, 1898, yet their enforcement was not separated from the functions of the ordinary executive, being left under the control of the Inspector General of Police in Seoul and of the Provincial Governors in the provinces. Consequently, prison administration, instead of aiming at the punishment of criminals in the interest of public safety, was often prostituted to private ends, so that innocent people were frequently thrown into jail simply at the dictates of political or personal vengeance. The new regulations provided that the treatment of prisoners awaiting trial should be differentiated from that of those already convicted. But in practice no such discrimination was made. Again, injustice in the treatment of convicts of the

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lower classes was very marked, so that while an offender of high official rank or the better class of civilians could have the company of his family in the prison yard and could order any luxury in the way of food or bedding, a convict of the poorer class could hardly obtain two meals a day, and often died of actual starvation. As to sanitary measures, nothing was provided. Most of the prison buildings in the provinces were mere shelters, often with earth floors. In winter, when the thermometer fell below zero, there were many cases of death from cold. In hot summers, on the other hand, prisoners often fell victims to epidemic diseases. Even the prison compound in Seoul, which was established in 1902, had no separate building for the sick.

When judicial reforms were commenced in 1906 by introducing Japanese legal councillors in the various courts, the Resident-General caused the advisory police inspectors attached to the provincial government offices to improve the prison administration as far as circumstances might permit. Efforts were made to differentiate the treatment of prisoners awaiting trial from that of convicts; three regular meals a day were given to all prisoners; rigorous sanitary measures were prescribed for times of epidemic disease; special rooms were to be set apart for the sick; outdoor work, such as street cleaning, was introduced to give air and exercise to the prisoners. For moral purposes, religious teaching was to be given to the prisoners and convicts on Sundays by Christian teachers, and, on Wednesdays, by Buddhists.

CHAPTER XX

TRADE CONDITIONS TO-DAY¹

IN 1908 Korea's commerce suffered because of the non-exportation of *ginseng* (the shipments of which amounted to only \$880 in comparison with \$601,237 in 1907), a large rice crop in Japan, and an abundant bean crop in Manchuria. Rice and beans are Korea's chief articles of export. The insurrection disturbed business in some parts of the Kingdom, but the principal reasons for the trade depression are the three just stated. However, the year 1908 witnessed the inauguration of a vigorous mining movement on the part of Americans, which will show to the world that Korea possesses mineral wealth of great value.

For over ten years a single group of mines, the first to be opened up in the country by foreigners (Americans), has stood as the only successful mining venture in Korea to be operated under modern methods. This group has produced approximately \$12,000,000 in gold bullion. The output is over \$100,000 per month. On this property almost \$1,250,000 has been expended in equipment, the machinery being largely of American manufacture. Between seventy and eighty American miners are employed and 5,000 Korean laborers, and about

¹ By Consul-General Thomas Sammons, Seoul.

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1,000 tons of ore, averaging \$5 per ton, are crushed and treated daily. The fact that this mine, now at a depth of 900 or 1,000 feet, continues to increase in value is confirmation of the possibilities of Korea's mineral resources.

AMERICAN MINING INTERESTS QUADRUPLED

American mining interests in Korea quadrupled during 1908, copper (Kapsan), gold, (Suan), and graphite (Kang Neung) properties being among those added. In addition to these another gold quartz property (Sak Ju mines), located near the Ya-lu River, is to pass to American control, and Americans have also secured a half interest in the famous Ham Heung Province placer mines at Meung Tai Dong, situated northwest of Wonsan (Gensan), on the east coast of Korea. At Meung Tai Dong nuggets are found, but this is the only extensive placer property in Korea that resembles the Klondike district deposits of coarse gold and nuggets. The ore values uncovered on one of these properties, a large gold quartz area known as the Suan mines (originally granted to British subjects, but in which Americans were largely interested and which is now leased to Americans), have warranted the purchase of a complete milling plant. The first consignment of twenty stamps is being installed. Supplies of this nature are purchased in the United States, and it is to this class of American products that Korea offers a most inviting new market.

Next to the American interest in mining in Korea,

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the British have shown the greatest activity. Thus far, however, Americans are interested to a considerable extent in all British mining exploitation in Korea. The most important British acquisition during 1908 was the taking over, under a working option, of the gold quartz and placer properties situated a short distance south of Seoul and known as the Chiksan mines. Indeed, it would seem that London capital heretofore largely occupied in Australia and South Africa is turning to Korea as the most promising field to be found in the world at the present time.

While the French mining concession as recently granted has not proven satisfactory, the Italian concession now being exploited, located near the Kapsan copper mines, in northern Korea, promises to prove rich in copper deposits. The German concession has as yet failed to show high values on any large scale.

CUSTOMS DUTIES REMOVED — AGRICULTURE

In connection with the adjustment of American mining concessionary problems during 1908, the Japanese Protectorate, acting for the Korean Government and under the personal direction of Prince Ito, practically did away with all export duties on mine products and removed all import duty on supplies used in the operation of mines in Korea. This, together with such modifications in the mining laws as are calculated to strengthen title and facilitate transfer, has served to stimulate the mining industry,

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and, combined with exceptionally valuable discoveries and new mining concessions as adjusted during 1908, has offered such practical inducements that the year will mark the turning point in Korea's industrial development. Thus, while Korea has always been primarily an agricultural country, its mineral wealth is becoming of great importance, and as iron mines and coal deposits are being developed the exploitation of its mineral resources may reasonably be expected to continue.

In the meantime the Korean-Japanese movement, having for its object the taking over of extensive areas of fertile Government land in Korea and the utilisation of tracts commonly designated as waste lands, is calculated to stimulate agricultural and industrial pursuits. This movement will at the same time bring large numbers of Japanese farmers to Korea, and it is predicted that the "Hermit Kingdom" will ultimately be able to export, particularly coastwise, large quantities of farm produce as well as of manufactured goods, fruits, and vegetables.

Agricultural experiment stations have demonstrated that Korea is well adapted to varied horticultural and agricultural pursuits. The culture of grapes on the lower half of the peninsula promises to develop into an important industry, and the possibilities of silk culture are very great. In rice, silk, cotton, cattle, tobacco, matting, and grass cloth Korea, with but slight systematic attention to their culture, care, and manufacture, would become of much consequence to the crop-production possibili-

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ties of the Far East. Already Korea produces some of the best varieties of rice in the world.

There are waste-land areas in Korea that could doubtless be profitably cultivated under the dry-farming process. Rice lands now worked only as the result of irrigation could also be worked under dry-farming methods should this new departure be introduced. The average rainfall is 39.4 inches, but owing to the fact that the forests have been cut away, as in many other parts of the Far East, destructive floods usually follow the heavy rains of July and August and the water is quickly carried off.

Korea possesses large areas of uplands suitable for cattle raising, and this industry, which is already receiving considerable attention, could be developed rapidly if cattle diseases were eradicated. About \$300,000 worth of live stock was exported in 1908 and \$25,000 worth of hides is exported annually. The results of experimenting with American cotton in Korea are highly satisfactory. The crop produced is double that of native cotton in quantity, the expense of raising it is fifty per cent. less, and the prices offered for the product are much higher than those for the Korean variety.

FOREIGN TRADE

The total commerce in 1908 amounted to \$31,843,557, and of this sum \$4,273,377 represented specie and bullion. This aggregate is \$1,390,195 less than that in 1907. The balance of trade was against

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Korea, the merchandise imports exceeding the exports in 1908 by \$13,455,669. In 1907 this excess of incoming trade was \$11,524,085. Exports of gold and silver coin and bullion exceeded the imports, however, by \$749,408 in 1908 and by \$2,006,636 in 1907. The principal articles of merchandise exported from Korea during 1907 and 1908, respectively, are shown in the following comparative statement:

Articles.	1907.	1908.	Articles.	1907.	1908.
Animals	\$388,722	\$358,527	Hides	\$338,264	\$259,468
Barley and wheat	228,340	83,377	Ore:		
Beans, yellow and red	1,967,826	1,705,821	Gold		22,451
Copper, manu- factures of ..	30,054	31,424	Iron and copper		87,686
Cotton, raw and ginned	81,587	51,683	Paper	32,668	34,225
Fertilisers		128,035	Rice	3,779,253	3,240,534
Fish	243,019	119,335	Seaweed	6,935	38,306
Ginseng	601,237	880	Timber and planks	89,312	72,072

The great decline in exports of *ginseng* from \$601,237 in 1907 to the insignificant amount of \$880 in 1908 caused a heavy decrease in the total of export trade, and there were additional losses of \$538,719 in rice and \$262,005 in beans.

While the export trade suffered, the total imports for the year showed a gratifying increase. The imports during 1907 and 1908 were divided among the various countries as follows:

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Country.	1907.	1908.	Country.	1907.	1908.
United States	\$1,647,779	\$2,096,959	Japan	\$13,681,936	\$12,021,454
Austria		11,948	Philippine		
Belgium	12,677	33,321	Islands		33,922
British India		11,202	Russia	19,829	10,516
China	2,232,848	2,441,198	Russia,		
Dutch Indies	9,139	63,210	Asiatic	321,657	25,839
France		57,084	Switzerland		25,010
Germany	33,463	197,347	Turkey		27,581
Hawaii		11,637	United		
Hongkong		32,557	Kingdom	2,758,798	3,390,242
			Other coun-		
			tries		21,898
			Total	1 20,718,126	20,512,925

¹ The figures for 1907 include \$693,124 for articles for military use and exclude those for re-export.

TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES

As appears in the foregoing table, the United States, China, Japan, and the United Kingdom practically control the import trade of Korea. The effort to introduce cheap oils into the country has not proven successful, and American oils continue to hold the bulk of the trade, notwithstanding that other oils have recently been placed with Korean merchants on a credit basis. In the kerosene oil business, as in the cigarette trade, personal representation and the carrying of goods in stock ready for local demands solve the problem of commercial expansion, as a rule.

Of approximately 735,000,000 cigarettes consumed annually in Korea a large number contain, wholly or in part, American tobacco. The Japanese tobacco

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monopoly has only slightly over fifty per cent. of the total trade in this line, with British-American interests holding practically the balance of the business. The latter have opened a factory in Korea. In railway supplies America has practically all of the trade, the railways of Korea being provided with American locomotives and rails. About fifty per cent. of all cars and fixtures are also of American manufacture.

American flour is well established in Korea and larger quantities may be sold from year to year. This will doubtless be the case, too, with school furniture and supplies, heating stoves, and household necessities generally. Because of bad roads or no roads at all automobiles are not in demand, but there may be a limited market for motor boats as the mining and other industries are developed.

The development of mines that are near tide water will open up a market for large quantities of heavy mining timber, and for a considerable period, if not permanently, it is probable that the Pacific coast of America will be able to supply this demand as against the products of the Ya-lu River timber districts, either in Korea or Manchuria. The Kang Neung graphite mines, the Chiksan gold mines, and the Sak Ju mines are all near tide water. The operation of the Kapsan copper mines on a large scale will require a railway to the sea, and by this method supplies may be hauled into the interior.

The principal articles imported from the United States, Hawaii, and the Philippine Islands during 1908 are given in the following table:

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Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Beer, porter, and stout....	\$1,312	Iron and steel, manufac-	
Candles.....	10,233	tures of — Cont'd.	
Cigarettes.....	53,094	Locomotives and fixtures	\$171,735
Cotton, manufactures of:		Nails.....	15,043
Sheeting.....	19,571	Pipes and tubes.....	3,183
Shirting, grey and white	3,695	Rails.....	414,049
Fish, salted.....	13,694	Lumber and planks.....	16,340
Flour, wheat.....	186,408	Oil, kerosene.....	684,995
Instruments, telegraph and		Porcelain and earthenware	292
telephone, etc.....	5,918	Sugar, brown and refined.	15,013
Iron and steel, manufac-		All other articles.....	474,609
tures of:			
Galvanised sheets.....	7,775	Total.....	2,096,959

Korean exports to the United States consist largely of concentrates, curios, brass ware, and a few tiger, leopard, and sable skins. With the development of the mineral resources of the country, shipments of mine products will increase, and efforts made during the past year by American concerns warrant the belief that larger quantities of Korean brass ware will find a ready market in the United States.

TRADE WITH OTHER FOREIGN COUNTRIES

Although Korea is able to manufacture grass cloth from native materials, and does, in fact, manufacture large quantities, it imported from China in 1908 approximately \$800,000 worth of this fabric because China can sell Korea grass cloth more cheaply than Korea, with primitive methods, can manufacture it. That country is also sending large quantities of silk to Korea, this trading being stimulated during 1908

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by the depreciation of silver. The establishment of many newspapers throughout the Kingdom has greatly increased the sales of paper, and the market shows an increasing demand for sugar, flour, cotton wadding, kerosene oil, and matches. Grey shirting and sheeting are not in active demand at present. White shirting from Shanghai successfully competes with Japanese manufactures. The principal articles imported from Japan, China, and the United Kingdom, respectively, during 1908 are shown in the following table:

Articles.	Japan.	China.	United Kingdom.
Cigarettes	\$307,645	\$88,000	\$49,916
Coal	684,645	644
Cotton, and manufactures of:			
Raw, and wadding	149,222	46,385
Satins	5,600	6,953	194,363
Sheetings and shirtings	1,085,731	3,058	1,845,520
Tissues, other	812,842
Yarns	1,000,899	10,779	136
Flour, wheat	5,737	257	7
Iron and steel, manufactures of:			
Galvanised sheets	11,107	101,407
Locomotives and fixtures	19,956	13,553
Nails	5,256	24,951
Pipes and tubes	964	290,892
Rails	11,143	8,673
Lumber and planks	584,175	235,178
Oil, kerosene	562
Salt	74,230	144,293
Silk gauzes	211	281,127
Sugar, brown and refined	336,542	3,974	1,555
All other articles	6,924,987	1,620,648	859,269
Total	12,021,454	2,441,198	3,390,242

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PATENT AND TRADE-MARK REGULATIONS

The Japanese system for the protection of trade-marks, designs, and patents was extended to Korea during 1908, to be effective after August 16. Under the agreement bringing about this new arrangement it is provided that Korean and Japanese subjects and American citizens possessing patent, design, or trade-mark rights obtained and protected in the United States upon application shall receive the same rights and similar protection in Korea, of the same duration as in America, provided that the application is made within one year after date on which the new regulations went into effect. Patent, design, and trade-mark rights obtained in Japan by American citizens prior to the enforcement of the new regulations will be deemed to have acquired protection in Korea for an equal period. Goods held in violation of patent rights thus obtained must be sold within six months after the regulation becomes effective.

It is provided that the terms for the exclusive use of patent, design, and trade-mark rights, obtained otherwise than as above described, shall be fifteen, ten, and twenty years, respectively. The fees for application are \$2.49 for patents, \$4.98 for designs, and \$1.49 for trade-marks. The yearly fee for holding a patent right is \$4.98, increased by \$2.49 each three years. The annual fee for a design right is \$1.49 for the first four years, \$2.49 for the next three years, and \$3.48 for the last three years. There is

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an annual fee of \$14.94 for a trade-mark right, to be charged for each class of goods upon which it is used.

It is evident from the movement of freight traffic in Korea that the port of Fusan, at the southern end of the peninsula, is destined gradually to divide honours with the port of Chemulpo on the western coast near Seoul. This is partially due to the falling off of shipping facilities with China and a steady increase in trade accommodations at the ports nearest Japan.

DECLARED EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES

The declared value of exports from Korea to the United States in the years 1907 and 1908, respectively, was as follows:

Articles.	1907.	1908.	Articles.	1907.	1908.
Books	\$373	\$61	Ore, gold and copper		\$214
Brass ware	242	2,129	Skins, leopard, bear, and sable	\$360	208
Chests, cabinets, and cash boxes	518	408	Total	16,322	28,364
Concentrates and slag, gold	11,126	23,237	Returned American goods	197	668
Curios	802	1,311	Grand total	16,519	29,032
Effects, personal and household	2,862	653			
Embroidery, native		30			
Ginseng	39	113			

CHAPTER XXI

MARITIME UNDERTAKINGS

IN October, 1905, the Financial Adviser was appointed to succeed *ex-officio* Mr. Brown, Chief Commissioner of the Korean Imperial Customs. Among many works of progress undertaken by the customs administration, the extension of the compounds, the improvement of harbours, and the enlarged provision of light-house facilities are the most noticeable. The growing foreign trade, especially its sudden increase since the last war, necessitated improvements at the Korean open ports. The Government consequently decided to expend upon the extension of all Customs compounds and the erection of light-houses several million *yen*, which had been previously set apart as a special fund out of the Customs receipts.

In March, 1906, a "Department of Customs maritime undertakings" with a Light-House Bureau was established at Seoul under the control of the Chief Commissioner of Customs. Its engineering staff is composed of several competent Japanese experts. Branch offices have been opened at the ports of Chemulpo, Fusan, Wonsan, Mok-po, and Chinnampo, to take charge of the reclamation works necessary for the Customs compounds, as well

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as to oversee the construction of office buildings, warehouses and sheds. Moreover, the work of providing Customs compounds at Shin-Wiju, and Chyong-jin was commenced in the fiscal year 1907.

The reclamation works in Chemulpo and Fusan are particularly extensive, the intention being that these harbours may offer full facilities for connecting land and water traffic. The areas reclaimed at Chemulpo and Fusan are to be 17,978 (15 acres) and 12,164 *tsubo* (10 acres), respectively, the former requiring 385 *ken* (770 yards) of retaining wall and the latter 29 *ken* (590 yards). The Chemulpo harbour is to have a main landing pier beside four piers for small cargo steamers and large junks; and the Customs compound at Fusan is to have a large wharf for ocean steamers, on which wharf five sheds will be built and connected with the railway, while there will also be piers for lighters and fishing-boats. In the basin for fishing-boats at Fusan provision will be made for cold-storage and other sheds; while in the Chemulpo compound there will be three warehouses and six sheds, all connected with the railway. Five improved cranes are to be erected in the Customs compounds at both Chemulpo and Fusan. With reference to quarantine, an inspection station is to be built on an island near the harbours of Chemulpo, Fusan, and Wonsan respectively, and each station will include a quarantine office, a disinfecting chamber and a hospital ward.

When this work of extending the Customs premises is fully completed, much greater facilities will be

afforded for foreign trade in Korea. Especially the harbours of Chemulpo and Fusan, having land and water communications, will undoubtedly be among the best in the Orient.

In spite of the fact that the Korean coasts are exceedingly unsafe for navigation, the Korean Government paid little attention to the erection of light-houses until 1901, when the Japanese Minister at Seoul called the attention of the Korean Government to article 31 of the trade regulations concluded in 1883 between Japan and Korea, by which it is stipulated that "the Korean Government shall improve each commercial harbour and establish light-houses and buoys in connection therewith." In consequence of this representation, Mr. Brown, Commissioner of Customs, agreed to make a beginning by allotting 245,000 *yen* out of the funds of the Customs revenue for survey purposes and for the construction of light-houses. The services of several Japanese experts were obtained, and, later on, an English engineer, Mr. Harding, was engaged for the work. Thus the construction of five light-houses on islands in the vicinity of Chemulpo harbour was completed by 1903. During the recent war, the Japanese Military Staff established light-houses and placed beacons and buoys at the mouth of the Ya-lu River, and on the eastern and southern coasts of the peninsula.

Side by side with the work of extending the Customs compounds, the Korean Government decided, in March, 1906, to make considerable improvements

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in light-house facilities along the several water-routes, and to allot for that purpose one million and a quarter *yen* out of the Customs revenue. The Bureau of Light-Houses, after careful survey, mapped Korean waters into ten navigation lines, and planned to establish thirty-five light-houses, five light-buoys, three beacons, fifty buoys, and eleven fog-signals, making 194 in all. This plan, however, was subsequently modified so that the numbers now stand as follow: — Fifty light-houses, five light-buoys, five beacons, fifty-four buoys, and sixteen fog-signals, making 130 in all, for which 1,266,272 *yen* is to be expended during five years beginning with 1906.

CHAPTER XXII

RAILROADS, TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES

ALTHOUGH the Koreans boast an ancient civilisation of their own, the country hitherto possessed hardly any public roads, except the so-called "grand road" from Seoul to the Chinese border, and a few roads between the capital and some provincial cities. The Government used to distribute a certain amount of money among the various districts for purposes of road repair. Not only was this sum, even in its integrity, quite inadequate to maintain the roads, but three-fourths of it went into the pockets of local magistrates, and practically nothing was done for the roads. Even stone bridges were suffered to lie broken, and the road-beds were gradually beaten down below the level of the adjacent ground. Thus in time of rain the roads became almost impassable.

During the China-Japan War, the Seoul-Chemulpo highway was constructed by the Japanese army, and two trunk roads from Seoul to Wonsan and Wiju respectively were similarly made by the Japanese troops during the war with Russia.

In order to facilitate transportation, the Korean Government (as stated in the Report for 1906)

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allotted 1,500,000 *yen* out of the Loan for Public Undertakings to construct four roads; namely, one between Chinnampo and Ping-yang; another from Tai-ku to Ya-nil Bay, by way of Kyang-ju; a third from Yon-san-kang to Mok-po; and a fourth from Keun-kang to Kunsan. These roads are to connect the principal open ports with the railway centres and agricultural districts. Surveys of the routes were commenced in August, 1906, and completed by December of that year, the total length being 301.5 kilometres. The width of the Tai-ku-Ya-nil and Yon-san-kang-Mok-po roads is to be six metres. But the Chinnampo-Ping-yang and Keun-kang-Kun-san width is to be seven metres, the idea being that these roads may be used for car lines hereafter. The appropriation of lands for the construction of these roads occupied almost a year (November, 1906–November, 1907) and the market price was paid, according to the Land Appropriation Law. Many of the Japanese owners gave their land gratis; an example followed to some extent by the Koreans. The actual work of construction was commenced in May, 1907, and 63.3 kilometres had been finished by the end of December in this year.

As a secondary stage of communications construction, seven other roads are planned for different provinces. These highways are expected to serve as models for similar work undertaken in future by local governments or municipalities.

By the Agreement concluded on April 1, 1905, the

Korean Government transferred to the Imperial Japanese Government "control and administration of the post, telegraph, and telephone services in Korea (except the telephone service exclusively pertaining to the Department of the Imperial Household)." Nevertheless the opening of the Japanese postal service in Korea dated from November 1, 1876, several months after the opening of the port of Fusan. Later on, Japanese post-offices were opened in Seoul and each treaty port. During the Russo-Japanese War postal services were also conducted by the Japanese in important cities or towns along the Japanese railways. Before the Korean Government assigned their communications system to Japan, there were altogether sixty-one Japanese post-offices.

With regard to postal administration, the Korean Government made its first effort in 1896 to operate a modern postal system by engaging Mr. Yamada, Postmaster of Osaka, and by enacting various Regulations relating to postal administration on the model of the Japanese system. But nothing was carried out after his dismissal. In 1898, Mr. Min San-ho, then Vice-Minister of the Department of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce, proceeded to Europe and America to investigate Western systems of postal administration, and brought back with him M. Clemenceau, a French gentleman, who was then engaged as adviser to the Post-Office. Again the introduction of a modern postal system was commenced, and Korea formally joined the Universal

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Postal Union in January, 1901; a Board of Communications being established in March to control the postal and telegraphic affairs of the country. Post-offices were opened at the treaty ports and in the principal towns and cities. But the operation and management of this postal service was so poor that the State lost annually from 140,000 *yen* to 290,000 *yen*, without any prospect of improvement. Had the postal administration been continued by the Korean Government, the Treasury would have suffered even more. Thus "finding it expedient from the standpoint of the administration and finances of Korea," the Government finally decided to transfer the entire management of communications to Japanese control.

The Korean postal system, amalgamated with the Japanese system, was thus brought under the charge of the Communications Department of the Japanese Government, and became subject to the control of that Department's Minister. But on the establishment of the Residency-General in Seoul, the charge of the posts, telegraphs, and telephones in Korea was transferred to the Bureau of Communications of the Residency-General and its final control fell to the Resident-General. The subsidy granted by the Japanese Government has decreased year by year and the earnings increased, so that, according to present prospects, the postal, telegraphic, and telephonic services in Korea will some day become self-supporting.

The number of post-offices, including those newly

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built, was 498 at the end of the fiscal year ended March 31, 1906, and it became 485 by the amalgamation of some small offices at the end of the next fiscal year. The total number of letters and post-cards handled by post-offices was 42,902,434 during the fiscal year ended March 31, 1906, as against 63,624,682 during the year following, an increase of 20,722,248, or nearly 49 per cent.; and the total number of parcels sent through the post was 286,734 and 512,230 in the same years, respectively, an increase of nearly 80 per cent., while the number of post-offices issuing money-orders increased from 512 in the former year to 264 in the latter.

The first telegraphic service in Korea was conducted by a Japanese post-office at Fusan in February, 1884, when the Great Northern Telegraph Company of Denmark laid a submarine cable between Nagasaki and Fusan. In November of the next year, the Korean Government constructed a line between Seoul and Wiju with money borrowed from China. Then, in consequence of representations made by the Japanese Minister at Seoul, the same Government constructed the Seoul-Fusan line in 1888, and a Seoul-Wonsan line was built in 1895. But the maintenance and management of these lines were so bad that telegraphic communication was easily interrupted in inclement weather, and the service could not be relied upon. When war broke out with China, the Japanese army built its own telegraph lines between Fusan, Seoul, and Chemulpo, and the right of maintaining these lines was reserved to

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Japan with the consent of the Korean Government. Further, by the Russo-Japanese Protocol concluded on June 9, 1896, the Russian Government obtained the right of constructing a line from Seoul to the Russian frontier, and in addition to these various trunk lines, there were several branches connected with seaports and gold mines. When the whole system of communications was transferred to Japanese control, the Korean Government possessed about 524 *ri* (1,310 miles) of telegraph lines, including a few telephone lines.

As to the telephones in Korea, the Government had services at Seoul, Chemulpo, Suwon, and Yongtengpo to a limited extent; but the total number of users of these telephones did not exceed fifty. After 1902, the Japanese post-offices at Seoul, Chemulpo, Fusan, and other places also operated telephone services.

The railways in Korea are of the improved standard gauge, while all those in Japan are of the narrow gauge.

Soon after the war with China had broken out, Japan expressed her intention of obtaining concessions for Seoul-Chemulpo and Seoul-Fusan railways, as indicated in the Agreement concluded with Korea on August 22, 1894. Later on, in 1896, Mr. James R. Morse, an American citizen, secured a definite concession from the Korean Government for the Seoul-Chemulpo line, and this concession was purchased from him in 1898 by a Japanese syndicate. The construction of the railway having

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been completed in 1901, it was opened to traffic in October of the same year, being thus the first railway in Korea. In 1898, a definite concession for the Seoul-Fusan line was given to another Japanese syndicate, called the Seoul Fusan Railway Company. With an authorised capital of 25,000,000 *yen*, to be raised by annual instalments of five millions, and with the Japanese Government's guarantee of interest on the debentures issued by the Company, the work of construction was begun in August, 1901. But when the relations with Russia became strained at the end of 1903, the Japanese Government granted an additional subsidy of 2,200,000 *yen* as well as a loan of 1,580,000 *yen* without interest, in return for which the Company undertook to push the construction rapidly. The railway, 268 miles in length, was completed by November, 1904, and opened to traffic on January 1, 1905. When the Japanese Government nationalised the principal private railways in Japan, this policy was extended to Korea, and the Seoul-Fusan and Seoul-Chemulpo lines were purchased for 20,015,500 *yen* in June, 1906, being brought under the charge of the Railway Bureau, which, under the control and supervision of the Resident-General, manages matters of construction, maintenance, and improvement, transportation and business connected therewith.

As to the Seoul-Wiju line, the first concession was given to a French syndicate, La Compagnie de Fines ville, in 1896, but owing to delay in commencing construction, the Korean Government itself, in 1908,

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decided to undertake the work. This project, however, was subsequently suspended for lack of funds. Immediately after the war with Russia had broken out, the Japanese army began to build the Seoul-Wiju railway and the Masampo line, in March and August, respectively, of 1904, according to the provisions of a treaty empowering the Japanese Government to take such measures as the circumstances might require, or to occupy such places as might be needful from a strategical point of view, in case "the Imperial Household or the territorial integrity of Korea be endangered by the aggression of a third Power or by internal disturbance." The Masampo line, twenty-five miles in length, was completed in May, 1905, and the Seoul-Wiju line of 323 miles in March, 1906. The cost of these two lines aggregated 25,397,357 *yen*, and they were transferred to the charge of the Railway Bureau of the Residency-General in September, 1906.

Up to the close of the fiscal year ended March 31, 1907, there had been expended 33,194,910 *yen* for the Seoul-Fusan line, 31,600,110 *yen* for the Seoul-Wiju line, and 2,338,951 *yen* for the Masampo line, making a grand total of 67,133,972 *yen*. In February, 1907, the Imperial Diet authorised the Railway Bureau of the Residency-General to establish a special account for the construction and improvement of railways in Korea, and granted a sum of 21,873,144 *yen* for these purposes, thus adding 8,179,003 *yen* to the sum of 13,694,141 *yen* which had been already appropriated for military objects. This fund is to be

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expended during the coming four years in the following amounts:— 10,100,020 *yen* for the fiscal year 1907; 7,257,587 *yen* for 1908; 3,281,537 *yen* for 1909; and 1,134,000 *yen* for 1910.

CHAPTER XXIII

PUBLIC WORKS

IN the course of administrative reforms, industrial encouragement, and educational extension, the necessity of improved public buildings has been felt. Under the pressure of this need, a "Special Section," dealing with the construction of public buildings, was established in the Finance Department by Imperial Edict No. 55, issued on September 24, 1906, the staff of the new Section being composed of several Japanese engineers and architects. As already stated, 587,221 *yen* out of the first "Public Undertakings Loan" was allotted for establishing the Tai-Tan Hospital, the Seoul Court-House, and the Industrial Training School. Of that sum, 293,566 *yen* was expended for building the hospital, 78,000 *yen* for the court-house, and 75,209 *yen* for the school, making a total of 446,775 *yen*. In addition, the National Treasury spent 80,000 *yen* for the construction of a Cabinet building, and 39,279 *yen* for the new Seoul Prison. The Cabinet building, the hospital, and the court-house are of a permanent nature, being built of brick or stone, and it is hoped that they will serve as a model for public buildings in the future.

The Educational Department, also, has spent

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69,250 *yen* for building the Seoul Normal School, and 338,617 *yen* for forty-nine new common schools.

The winter in Korea being rather severe, public buildings made of wood are not suitable. Moreover, Korea is outside the earthquake zone. For these reasons the Government decided to construct substantial brick buildings of a permanent type. But the supply of bricks made by private companies being found inadequate, while those imported were very expensive, the Government itself undertook to manufacture this commodity, and 234,000 *yen* was appropriated for the establishment of a brick factory. The site selected is at Ma-ho near the Han River, and 50,000 *tsubo* (42 acres) of land was obtained for the erection of buildings and to supply clay. The actual making of bricks began in April, 1907; the setting up of the latest model of Hoffman's brick-making machinery was completed by September of the same year; and the station thenceforth became capable of turning out more than 30,000 bricks a day. The cost of bricks made at this station is much cheaper than that of those imported.

As a branch of this enterprise, a factory for making drain-pipes and tiles has been established at Yong-tengpo. The whole of this department was not completed by the end of December, 1907, though 3,504 pipes and 97,045 tiles were made in the several kilns already completed during the last four months of the year.

In the course of financial and administrative reforms, the Korean Government felt the pressing

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necessity of printing various blank forms of official documents, certificates, stamps, official reports, etc. But private enterprise in this line being in its infancy in Korea, and consequently inadequate for the purpose, the Finance Department, in November, 1904, decided to establish a Printing Bureau. To that end advantage was taken of the fact that the mint, which had been closed in October, 1904, owing to the financial reforms, was lying idle, and all its machines were utilised for the Printing Bureau.

Besides ordinary printing business, the Bureau undertook the engraving of copper plates, as well as designing and painting. But owing to a fire in March 1906, more than half of the buildings was destroyed and business had to be suspended temporarily. It was soon resumed, however, and further extended as follows:—

1. Making of stamps, bonds, and shares.
2. Designing, engraving, and modelling.
3. Printing from type, copper plates, photolithography, and so forth.
4. Making of ink and ink-rollers for printing purposes.
5. Manufacturing paper for official certificates, bonds, and other securities.

For the further development of the business, 430,000 *yen*, appropriated from the "Public Undertakings Loan," is to be spent in extending the buildings, buying improved printing-machines, providing motor-power and electric light, and constructing residencies for employees, etc. This extension

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work was begun in September, 1907, and is now completed.

Various efforts have been made to train native labour. Thus several young Koreans were sent to the Printing Bureau in Japan, in 1906, to study improved systems of printing. Moreover, Korean girls, who are habitually confined to domestic duties, were encouraged to work in the Printing Bureau, and are now engaged in various sections of the bookbinding, paper-manufacturing, and lithographic works. Japanese engineers and foremen are also engaged as instructors or to undertake specially difficult and delicate work.

Along the main stream of the Ta-dong River and its tributaries, in the neighbourhood of Ping-yang, beds of anthracite coal are extensive, the veins being about thirteen *ri* (32 miles) in length and three *ri* (7½ miles) in width. Their position forms the figure Y. It is said that the Koreans did not pay any attention to these rich deposits until the sailors of a Chinese junk first used Ping-yang coal for fires, some fifteen years ago. After the China-Japan War, a French firm, Messrs. Rondon, Plaisan et Cie, obtained a mining lease from the Imperial Household, and another Company (a Korean and American partnership) engaged in the enterprise of coal-mining for some time at different places, paying the Imperial Household twenty-five per cent. of the profits as a royalty. The Imperial Household is said to have furnished 300,000 *yen* to each company as a part of their capital fund. In addition,

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private individuals, native or foreign, freely mined the coal, without regard to the public interest.

With the object of establishing a model coal-mine as well as to increase the national revenue in the future, the Government assumed complete control of the Ping-yang coal-mines, and by Imperial Edict No. 10, issued August 22, 1907, the "Ping-yang Coal Mining Station" was established under the supervision and control of the Minister of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry, the organisation of the Station being subsequently modified by Imperial Edict No. 67 in December, 1907. The staff is composed of a presiding engineer, two managers, two chief engineers, several assistant engineers, and clerks. In addition, there are twenty-seven engineers engaged in the actual work of mining, seven of them being Koreans. At the end of December, 1907, thirty-five foremen and 425 miners were employed, ninety per cent. being Koreans. Up to that month, 34,415 *yen* had been expended on developing the work and on the plant, and 2,150 tons of coal had been sold for 5,700 *yen*.

The budget for 1908 contained a special grant of 300,000 *yen* for this coal-mining station, to meet expenses and the cost of extending the mining equipment.

There exist rich forests along the banks of the Ya-lu and the Tu-men Rivers, but they were never properly exploited, except in a temporary manner by the Russians prior to the recent war, and later by the Japanese army in turn. Proper exploita-

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tion with adequate capital should undoubtedly yield a considerable revenue to the Treasury. But being unable without foreign aid to open up this large source of wealth, the Korean Government concluded an agreement with the Resident-General in October, 1906, to conduct forestry undertakings along the Ya-lu and Tu-men Rivers as a joint enterprise of the Japanese and Korean Governments, with a capital of 1,200,000 *yen*, each party contributing one-half. Work actually began in May, 1907, with a paid-up capital of 600,000 *yen*, and the "Forestry Undertakings Station" was established at Antung in Manchuria, near the mouth of the Ya-lu River, opposite Wiju. The business hitherto carried on in Korean territory at a "Timber Station" maintained by the Japanese army was then transferred to this new Forestry Undertakings Station. In the Hyoisan-Chin Mountains, the centre of the forests on the upper reaches of the Ya-lu River, a branch station was erected to manage the work of felling, transporting, and rafting the timber. Along the river three sub-stations were created to watch the rafts. The distance from the place where the timber is felled to the main station at Antung is 150 *ri* (375 miles) and the rafts take forty days to make the journey. During the Japanese fiscal year ended March 31, 1908, 74,112 cubic *shaku* of timber was felled, of which 71,006 cubic *shaku* was rafted and 45,301 cubic *shaku* arrived at the main station, 19,855 cubic *shaku* being sold for 79,596 *yen*.

In accordance with the experience of the Japanese

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troops who conducted the timber undertaking for a time, the following estimates were compiled: A loss of 82,970 *yen* in 1907; lessening to 11,670 *yen* in 1908; becoming a profit of 119,630 *yen* in 1909, and so on. But the actual loss in 1907, namely, the excess of expenses over sales of timber, did not exceed 46,000 *yen*, instead of 82,970 *yen*. This was mainly owing to the good market that prevailed in China and Korea.

CHAPTER XXIV

INDUSTRIAL ENCOURAGEMENT

THE mountain ranges in Korea cover more than half the total area of the country. Owing to indiscriminate felling of trees without public supervision, which was practised for a long time past, most of the mountain slopes, except those along the Ya-lu and Tu-men Rivers, the Chili-san range, dividing the provinces of South Kyongsyang and South Chyolla, and the island of Quelpart, have become denuded of trees. Thus the people not only suffer from lack of fire-wood, but also are unable to build better houses than mere huts. Furthermore, this general deforestation of the mountains is a principal cause of injury to agriculture, owing to floods in the rainy season and lack of water for irrigation purpose in the dry season.

The Korean Government, appreciating the urgent advice of the Resident-General, established, in 1906, three model forests in the mountains near Seoul, Ping-yang, and Tai-ku. The total area of these covered 33,320 *cho* (83,300 acres) and the number of young trees, comprising pine, oak, larch, chestnut, and cryptomeria imported from Japan and planted, amounted to 17,880,000 at a cost of 293,000 *yen*.

In 1907, three Nursery Gardens were established

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in the vicinity of the Model Forests near Ping-yang and Tai-ku, and also at Suwon. In these Gardens seeds of various trees were sowed in the spring of 1907, and promising results were obtained.

In addition to these model forestry stations, the Government is making every effort to afforest the bare mountains throughout the country. In a school attached to the Agricultural and Industrial model station at Suwon, a short course in forestry was added to the curriculum, and the first graduates, twelve in number, are now actively engaging in forest administration under the Government, and at the Model Stations.

Hitherto the administration of forests has nominally been conducted by the agricultural section of the Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry, but in order to grow timber on the barren mountains, to encourage private enterprise in forests, and to effectively supervise the management of forests, a Bureau of Forestry was established in the Department in 1907, and several Japanese experts in forestry were engaged for service throughout the country.

Thus having established model forests, a forest school, and a Bureau of Forestry, the Government is now preparing comprehensive laws which will provide, among other things, that certain mountains and forests, both public and private, shall be preserved as protections against land-slides, floods, and drought. On the other hand, public lands or their products are to be sold, leased, or granted to private

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individuals under certain limitations and conditions in the interest of forestry improvement.

Nothing is more important for the advancement of material prosperity in Korea than to give the people every opportunity of improving the old-fashioned methods of agriculture and industry.

For this purpose the Residency-General established, in June, 1906, an Agricultural and Industrial Model Farm at Suwon, about twenty-five miles from Seoul, at a cost of 168,520 *yen*. This farm was transferred to the control of the Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry of the Korean Government in April, 1907. Eighty-seven *cho* of land (217 acres) have been appropriated for the purpose, and there are attached to the Farm seven competent Japanese experts with twelve Japanese and Korean assistants, all under the charge and superintendence of Dr. Honda. Experiments in the cultivation of rice, barley, sugar-beet, tobacco, cotton, and other staples are made; sericulture is undertaken; and the raising of live stock is tried. The work done during the last two years is worth attention.

Rice: The Farm has paid serious attention to rice cultivation, as this cereal is one of the major agricultural products in Korea. In 1906, experiments were undertaken in several fields near Suwon and Kunsan, where Japanese and Korean seed was sown; and it was proved that the Japanese seed generally produced more than the Korean. In 1907, several kinds of Japanese rice were tried at the Farm,

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and that known as *Shinriki* was found to be best adapted to the Korean soil and climate, while being also the most productive. Of upland rice, the *Orian* proved the best.

Sugar-beet: The climate of Korea being somewhat similar to that of Europe, where the sugar-beet is generally grown, the Farm, in 1906, distributed the German seeds, klein-wanzlebener and braune, for trial at the Horticultural Model Station at Tuksan, the Industrial Undertakings Company at Hoang-Ju, and the Aichi Agricultural Garden at Wonsan. Of these kinds of seed the klein-wanzlebener proved the more adaptable to Korean soil. The results obtained with this seed at the Farm in 1907 were satisfactory: they gave the following average figures: Weight per root, 435 grammes; sugar contained in liquid, 13,988 per cent., the purity being 88 per cent. by chemical analysis. The climate in Korea being drier than that of Japan, the production of sugar-beet is more promising than in Hokkaido, where the cultivation of the root is carried on to a limited extent.

Sericulture: The Japanese originally learned sericulture from the Koreans, yet the silk industry in Korea is to-day very limited and its product so crude as not to be comparable with the Japanese staple. The Farm experimented with silk-worm eggs and mulberry trees brought from Japan and found that they are well adapted to the conditions existing in Korea. A great many years will be required, however, to carry the silk industry in Korea to a state

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approaching perfection as long as Korean houses are so low and dark that they seriously interfere with the growth of the worm, whereas Japanese houses are almost ideal in this respect.

On the other hand, the cultivation of wild silk-worms, as carried on in the Antung districts beyond the Ya-lu, should be capable of being transplanted to Korea, as the conditions in north Korea and in Antung are much alike, and the *Quercus Mongolia*, on which these wild silk-worms feed, abounds in both regions. The eggs of this wild variety of silk-worms were brought from the Hoo-san Mountain in north Antung and tested at the Paingma Mountain in north Korea, also at Suwon. At both places the results of two years' experiments, alike with spring and autumn broods, were satisfactory, the worms proving themselves adaptable to Korea when proper care is taken to prevent destruction by magpies as well as by flies and other insects.

Live stock: Specimens of Berkshire pigs have been brought to the Farm, and are proving so satisfactory that a pig of seven months weighs 18 *kan* (150 lbs. av.).

With regard to poultry, the Nagoya Cochin China and other stock of foreign origin are being bred at the Farm. The Cochin China do particularly well in Korea. They keep very healthy without any special care during winter and their eggs average 58.5 grammes.

Besides the experimental works above mentioned, the Farm distributes seeds or young plants, eggs or

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young live stock to farmers who apply for such things, or sells them at cost price. Any necessary instruction or information in regard to agricultural questions, is also freely given.

The climate and soil in the southern part of the peninsula are well suited to the growth of cotton, but the native method of cultivation being primitive, Koreans and Japanese interested in this industry formed an "Association for the Cultivation of Cotton" (as stated in the report for 1906), with the object of introducing an improved system of planting. The Korean Government also decided to subsidise this Association to the extent of 100,000 *yen*, distributed over three years, beginning in 1906, on condition that American upland cotton be introduced; that the seed obtained from the crop be distributed among planters at large, and that a ginning mill be established, with the special object of preventing the seed from being wastefully thrown away. The charge and superintendence of the Association have been entrusted to the Agricultural and Industrial Model Farm at Suwon, and a branch station for experimenting in cotton cultivation was established at Mok-po in June, 1906.

This branch soon selected ten sites for cotton beds, and erected a ginning mill near Mok-po. The total area under cotton cultivation, including the ten beds managed by the experimental station, increased from 516 *tan* in 1906, to 662 *tan* (166 acres), in 1907, with a production of 77,074 *kin* (92,765 lbs. av.). The number of Koreans planting cotton increased to 580

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in 1907 against 348 in 1906, while five places where Japanese carried on the enterprise in 1906 became sixteen in 1907.

In past ages Korea reached an advanced stage in various arts and industries, so that the Japanese obtained from her the arts of weaving, ceramics, metal-casting, architecture, etc. Since mediæval days, however, Korean industry has been on the decline, and to-day it is in a state of decay. Should the young generation of men whose ancestors exhibited remarkable talent in the various arts be brought under uniform guidance, and be properly trained, they will undoubtedly show once more their old industrial activity.

To establish a special school for carrying out the above idea was one of the principal objects in obtaining a "Loan for Public Undertakings" in 1906, and 149,654 *yen* out of the loan was allotted to establishing an Industrial Training School in Seoul. By the recommendation of the Resident-General, Dr. Hiraga, one of the leading technical engineers in Japan, was engaged by the Korean Government to prepare general plans of the schools. The following six courses of industrial training are to be given at this institution, viz:—

1. Dyeing and weaving:—Bleaching; plain dyeing and printing; weaving of cotton, hemp, silk, and wool.
2. Ceramics:— Beside the original Korai faience, the making of modern porcelain has been introduced.

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3. Metal work:— Casting, tempering, and finishing.
4. Manual work:— Carpentering, joinery, and wheelwright work.
5. Applied chemistry:— Paper making; skin dressing; manufacture of soap, glue, gelatine and artificial manure; oil extraction and chemical analysis.
6. Civil engineering:— Surveying and drawing.

In addition to the above, the following subjects will be taught in all courses alike:—

The Japanese language; elementary English; arithmetic; free-hand drawing; physics and chemistry. The construction of a main building and six buildings for the separate courses, as well as two dormitories, was completed in March, 1907, at the cost of 75,209 *yen*. For machinery and apparatus of various kinds 50,000 *yen* has been spent.

The object of the school excited much interest among the Koreans, and at the first entrance examination, held in April, 1907, there were 1,100 applicants, of whom only seventy-four passed. In addition to free tuition and lodging, an allowance of six *yen* per month is given to each student.

For the maintenance of the school, 30,170 *yen* was appropriated in 1907, and 41,799 *yen* in 1908.

While the Korean Government and the Residency-General employed their utmost efforts and influence in promoting various agricultural, industrial, and commercial facilities, they did not neglect to afford every available encouragement or opportunity to the

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Koreans at large, with a view to improving the latter's standard of living. Thus a Seoul Exposition was held in 1907, primarily to impart general knowledge to the Koreans, and to stimulate their interest in modern industrial life. This enterprise was under the auspices of the Korean Government and the Residency-General, and received pecuniary aid from them, its details, however, being managed by a private joint association of Koreans and Japanese. The total number of exhibitors was 1,493, among whom 193 were Koreans, the rest being Japanese; and the total number of articles exhibited was 76,021, namely, 4,909 by Koreans and the rest by Japanese. The Exhibition was opened on the 1st of September, 1907, and remained open for two months and ten days. At the beginning, only a few Koreans, drawn mainly by curiosity, visited the place, but the popularity of the Exhibition soon grew, and a large concourse of Koreans attended, their interest being particularly excited by the contrast between the comparative crudeness of their own exhibits and the superior qualities of the Japanese articles. It was originally estimated that the number of visitors might not reach more than 50,000 during the whole term, but this forecast was quadrupled, the visitors actually aggregating 208,417. The largest attendance on any one day reached 12,710, the smallest being 223, and the average was 2,778 *per diem* for the whole seventy days. Seventy-five per cent. of the visitors were Koreans.

CHAPTER XXV

SANITATION AND WATER WORKS

ALTHOUGH Korea is not typically a tropical country, yet various plagues have often threatened both human beings and cattle. Proper sanitary measures having hitherto been neglected, the population has been at a standstill for a long time. A hospital and a medical school to promote vaccination were first established in 1897 under the advice of a Japanese, Dr. Kojo, and, three years later, eighty-one medical students having graduated, they were distributed among vaccination stations, which were established throughout the provinces, by a decree of the Home Department, issued on June 27, 1897. The regulations provide also for general compulsory vaccination; and, in addition, several laws and regulations were enacted for the prevention of cholera, typhoid fever, dysentery, and diphtheria. These laws were not carried into effect: they were pigeon-holed.

In March, 1906, the Advisory Police Board engaged about fifty Japanese physicians and distributed them among the police stations in the various provinces. They had charge of vaccination and other sanitary measures. Since these measures have been taken, the number of small-pox cases has decreased compara-

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tively, although an accurate estimate has not yet been obtained.

In the later part of the summer of 1907, when several cases of cholera appeared among the Koreans, Chinese, and Japanese in the vicinity of the Ya-lu River, a temporary quarantine station, with a personnel of several Japanese and Korean commissioners, was established in Shin-Wiju, and when the disease made its appearance in Fusan, Chemulpo, Ping-yang, and Seoul, the Police Advisory Board established branch quarantine stations in these places also. Prior to the visit of the Crown Prince of Japan to Seoul, the Resident-General issued a special order for the establishment of a "Plague Preventive Staff" (principally consisting of the medical corps of the Japanese garrison and advisory police), and thorough measures for disinfection were rigorously carried out in the city of Seoul. The result of these precautions was that any serious spread of the epidemic was checked. Official reports give the following statistics: 361 cases of cholera (198 Koreans, 152 Japanese, and 11 Chinese); 270 deaths (156 Koreans, 8 Chinese, and 106 Japanese).

In connection with the organic regulations for central and local administration, issued in December, 1907, various sanitary organisations were established. With regard to central administration for sanitary purposes, the Sanitary Bureau of the Home Department is to control and supervise the sanitary administration of the whole country; the Sanitation Experimental Section of the Tai-Han Hospital is to

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take charge of experiments along the line of sanitation; while the local sanitary administration is to be conducted by the second section of the Metropolitan Police Office, by the sanitary sections of the Provincial Police Stations, and by the provincial governments. Municipal organisation for sanitation was inaugurated by the Seoul Sanitary Association, organised as a joint undertaking of the Seoul municipality and the Japanese settlement municipality, it being arranged that the expenses of this association should be met by a subsidy from the Korean Government, and by fees collected from the Korean and Japanese residents in Seoul.

Until very recently Korea possessed no adequately equipped hospital on a large scale, though there were two small hospitals, and one attached to a medical school in Seoul; as well as several other hospitals organised by foreign missionary societies or by the municipalities of the various Japanese settlements. These hospitals, however, were irregularly managed, and did not possess any competent equipment or accommodation, though one of them was controlled by the Home Department, another by the Imperial Household, and a third — which was attached to the Medical College — by the Educational Department.

In accordance with the advice of the Resident-General, the Korean Government decided, in 1906, to establish one large new hospital, by amalgamating the above mentioned three institutions. For this purpose 357,577 *yen*, out of the "Public Undertakings Loan," was allotted for construction and mainte-

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nance, and the hospital was placed under the control of the Home Department; Baron Dr. Sato, a prominent Surgeon-General in Japan, being invited to act as councillor in the establishment of this Tai-Han Hospital, and later being made its President. Madzusan Hill, the most healthy location in Seoul, was selected for the hospital. Most of the buildings are of brick, and the hospital has been divided into five sections, namely, medical, surgical, gynæcological, and ophthalmological, together with a section for diseases of the ear, nose, and throat. The medical faculty is composed of the President, eight Japanese and two Korean doctors, with three Japanese and five Korean assistants; four Japanese pharmacists and ten Japanese nurses. Six buildings of one-story construction have been provided as wards for the patients, and these are divided into three classes. Beside these an isolated building has been erected for patients with infectious diseases. In the first class wards a charge is made of $2\frac{1}{2}$ *yen* a day; in the second class, 1.25 *yen*, and in the third, 75 *sen*; but all foreign people are charged double these fees. As for medicine for out-patients, all foreign people have to pay fifty per cent. more than Koreans do. For patients in extreme poverty, free advice and treatment are given.

The Medical School attached to the Tai-Han Hospital succeeded the Seoul Medical School which belonged to the Educational Department. The new Medical School was reorganised on an improved modern system. Its teaching force consists of three

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Japanese professors, three Korean doctors, and one American physician. The school is exclusively designed to train Koreans as physicians, surgeons, pharmacists, midwives, and nurses; and the course of study extends over four years for medicine; three for pharmacy; and one for midwifery or nursing. In the Medical Department the curriculum includes anatomy, physiology, pathology, diagnosis, pharmacy, practice of medicine, pediatrics, surgery, genito-urinary treatment, gynæcology, midwifery, sanitation, bacteriology, medico-jurisprudence, and clinical practice. In addition, arithmetic, physics, chemistry, and Japanese are taught in the first year, because the Koreans are still deficient in the common branches of education. Those who pass the entrance examinations with good marks are received as Government students, all their expenses for dormitory, clothing, and tuition being given to them, while in the case of other students the fees only are remitted and text-books are lent.

The well-water in Korean towns is often a cause of epidemic diseases, owing to infiltration from stagnant drains and uncleaned necessaries. In spite of the fact that water works for the large cities are thus of vital importance, attention was never seriously paid to the matter until the Japanese Municipal Council in Seoul held a meeting to discuss this subject on January 29, 1904, and decided to build a reservoir on Nam San, for the purpose of supplying the Japanese settlement with water at a cost of 100,000 *yen*. The measure was not carried out,

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however, owing to a protest from Messrs. Collbran and Bostwick, an American firm, which claimed the exclusive privilege of constructing water works in Seoul. Meanwhile, in March, 1906, on the urgent advice of the Resident-General, the Korean Government decided to appropriate funds for water works out of the "Loan for Public Undertakings," and to apply them for the construction of water works at Chemulpo and Ping-yang, as well as to subsidise the water works at Fusan, which had already been commenced by the Japanese settlement there. The amount thus allotted to Chemulpo is 2,170,000 *yen*; to Ping-yang, 1,300,000 *yen*, and as a subsidy to Fusan, 350,000 *yen*. A Bureau of Water Works was established in June under the control of the Finance Department, but was amalgamated with the Bureau of Public Works of the Home Department in December, 1907.

The site chosen for the pumping station is at No-Yang-jin on the banks of the Han River above Yong-san. All the necessary surveys for the pumping station, including settling reservoirs and filters, a clear water basin, the route of the pipe line, and a distributing reservoir, were completed by October, 1906, but, owing to the severity of the winter, work was not actually begun till March, 1907. The capacity of the water works has been calculated so as to furnish a supply of 280,000 cubic *shaku* of water a day, on a basis of four cubic *shaku* per head of 70,000 inhabitants, the possible population in the near future being estimated as follows: Koreans,

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30,000; foreigners, 25,000; and 15,000 for ships watering at the port. The intake is to be in the Han River, a mile above the railway bridge, where the water is free from contamination and altogether suitable for drinking purposes. The pumping station is connected with the settling reservoirs and filters, which have respectively a total capacity of 560,000 cubic *shaku*, sufficient for two days' consumption by a population of 70,000. A clear water basin is to be built on a hill at No-Yang-jin, 300 *shaku* above sea level, having a capacity of 140,000 cubic *shaku*, or sufficient for half a day. The distributing reservoir is to be built on a hill 200 *shaku* above sea level to the north-east of Chemulpo, and will have a capacity of 560,000 cubic *shaku*, or two days' maximum supply. The length of the main pipe between the clear water basin and the distributing reservoir is to be 8 *ri* 14 *cho*, and its diameter 20 inches.

The work of construction is to be completed within five years, beginning from 1906, when the preliminary surveys and the purchase of necessary materials were commenced. By the end of December, 1907, one-third of the construction had been finished.

The survey of the Water Works for Ping-yang was completed by December, 1906. It has been planned on the basis of a population of 50,000, namely, Koreans, 30,000; foreigners, 12,000; military, 4,500; and 4,000 for railway use. The pumping system is to be similar to that at Chemulpo, and the water is to come from a point in the main stream of the Ta-

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Dong River to the pumping station on Neung-ma Island, with which settling reservoirs and filters are connected. Thence, the water is to be led across a branch stream of the Ta-Dong River to the distributing reservoirs, which have a total capacity of 3,400,000 litres for twelve hours. Half of the work of construction was done by the end of December, 1907, and the whole is expected to be finished by the end of 1909.

The Water Works at Fusan are under construction as a joint enterprise of the Korean Government and the Japanese Municipal Council, at a cost of 1,170,000 *yen*, out of which 820,000 *yen* is to be subscribed by the municipality and the balance of 350,000 *yen* by the Government, and the work of construction is to be carried out under the control of the Bureau of Public Works. The plan for the works at Fusan is to improve the old reservoir hitherto maintained by the Japanese municipality and to build a large new one, with a capacity for 55,000 people. The gravitation system has been adopted, and the old impounding reservoir on Ko-uön-kyön Mountain is expanded to contain a supply for 10,000 persons, while a new impounding reservoir is to be constructed on a mountain two *ri* from the city capable of supplying 45,000 people. The water from the two impounding reservoirs is to be conducted to a distributing reservoir, constructed on a hill behind the present Customs office. The work was begun in April, 1907, and is to be completed within three years and a half.

CHAPTER XXVI

EDUCATION

PRIOR to the China-Japan War, there was no real public school system in Korea, nor any institution for giving modern education. In fact, education has never been regarded as a matter of public interest, but only as a private affair. A litterateur in a village gives lessons to boys in the writing and reading of Chinese characters and in domestic etiquette, this kind of school being known as *clu-pung*. For a more advanced study of Chinese Korean boys go to the *Han-gyo*, where the image of Confucius is venerated, and this *Han-gyo* is maintained in each district with income derived from rice-fields granted by the Government or donated by private individuals. One candidate selected from each *Han-gyo* is eligible to enter the *Son-gyun-koan* at Seoul, which is merely a high educational institution for the study of the Chinese classics. Within recent years, however, general history, geography, and mathematics have been included in the curriculum. Graduates from the *Son-gyun-koan* are eligible for the lower grades of the Civil Service.

Although several laws and ordinances relating to common, middle, normal, and technical schools were promulgated in the course of the general administra-

tive reforms in 1895 after the China-Japan War, these regulations were largely ineffective. Common schools and others were indeed established in Seoul and some provincial cities, but they may be said to have confined themselves to the irregular teaching of Chinese ideographs, other important studies being neglected for the most part. There are schools maintained by various foreign missionary societies, besides several schools under Buddhist missionaries from Japan.

For the sake of the general welfare of the young generation, reform in education is of vital importance. The educational affairs of the country cannot be entrusted wholly to foreign missionary schools, or abandoned to the imperfect system hitherto pursued by the Korean Government.

In accordance with the advice of the Resident-General, the Korean Government appropriated 500,000 *yen* out of the "Loan for Public Undertakings," in March, 1906, for the extension of education; 350,000 *yen* being allotted for improving and establishing common schools, and the balance, 150,000 *yen*, for expanding and improving normal schools, high schools, and foreign language schools.

Based on the educational system of advanced countries, yet carefully adapted to existing conditions in Korea, general regulations for common schools were issued by Imperial Edict and by a decree of the Minister of Education in August, 1906.

While common schools in Japan are maintained by municipalities or local governments, in Korea the

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Central Government also takes a leading part in supporting such schools, municipal and local administration not being yet developed. Instead of compulsory education, a voluntary system of attendance has been adopted, as the present scale of living among the Koreans is not compatible with compulsory attendance. However, in order to encourage children to come to school, tuition and text-books are free. While the course of study in Japan is eight years — six years in the lower grade and two years in the upper — a four years' course has been adopted in Korea, by combining parts of the upper and lower Japanese grades, and the village *clu-pung* are to connect with the common schools as preparatory to the latter.

The course of instruction includes moral teaching, the languages of Korea, China, and Japan, arithmetic, simple geography and history, physics, drawing, and physical exercises. Sewing and other domestic accomplishments are added for girls; while music, manual training, and lessons in agriculture and industry can be given as voluntary courses.

Text-books are to be used in teaching morality, languages (Japanese, Korean, and Chinese), physics, and writing. The text-books for geography and history have not yet been issued separately, but they are included in the Korean and Japanese reading-books.

By the end of December, 1907, the number of common schools established under the new regulations was forty-nine (eight in Seoul and forty-one in

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the various provinces) with 51 Japanese teachers and 152 native teachers, 4,052 boys and 40 girls. Besides these, there are thirty-five common schools established in accordance with the old regulations, but their management is so poor that they can scarcely be said to have any system, and the exact number of teachers and pupils is unknown.

There are also 271 private schools recognised by the Government, but in their case also the exact number of teachers and pupils is unknown. The Government is working to bring them gradually into harmony with the public schools, as far as possible.

Nothing is more important for the improvement of general education in Korea than the training of native teachers. Therefore the Government has given most serious attention to establishing a new Normal School. In order to train uniform and competent teachers for the common schools, the new regulations for the Normal School, promulgated by Imperial Edict No. 41, on August 27, 1906, do not recognise any private normal school; every normal school must be founded by the Central, or Provincial, Government. The course of study is nearly the same as that of the normal school in Japan, except that the Japanese language constitutes one of the most important subjects in the Korean normal school. The curriculum includes moral teaching, pedagogy, the Korean, Japanese, and Chinese languages, history, arithmetic, physics, chemistry, natural science, drawing, music, and

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gymnastics. By permission of the Minister of Education, one or more courses in agriculture, commerce, and manual training may be included; and for practical training in teaching, a common school may be attached to the normal school. The term of the regular course is three years; but a preparatory course, a short-term course, or a lecture course, for special students may be completed in one year. Tuition, board, and clothing are given by the Government to all regular students.

The construction of the new normal school was completed in December, 1907. By the end of that month, there were 106 students, with five Japanese and three Korean teachers.

In addition to the foregoing, there are two kinds of schools maintained by the Government under the new regulations, one the High School, the other the Foreign Language Schools.

The object of the High School is to give a liberal education to Korean boys above twelve years of age, who have passed through the common schools or who have corresponding attainments. The course includes history, geography, mathematics, natural science, physics, chemistry, ethics, the Korean, Japanese, and Chinese languages, drawing, music, and gymnastics. Elementary law and economics are also given as voluntary subjects, and the course of study occupies a period of four years.

At the end of December, 1907, there was only one high school with 126 students, ten Korean and five Japanese teachers.

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In Seoul there are five foreign language schools for teaching Japanese, English, Chinese, German, and French, respectively; besides a Japanese language school at Chemulpo and two at Ping-yang.

For children of the Imperial Family and the nobility, a Peers School, called the *Su-hak-won*, was established in 1906. It ranks as a common school in educational grade, and although controlled by the Minister of the Imperial Household, the Minister of Education is freely consulted in all matters relating to the educational work.

Prior to the entrance of Korea into treaty relations with the Western Powers, the Government rigorously maintained an anti-Christian policy, and a number of French missionaries were put to death or banished. The Western Powers, however, secured freedom of missionary enterprise within the treaty limits, and, later, the work of American, French, and English mission societies was extended, so that now a number of missionaries are engaged in preaching the gospel of Christ in the interior, and many schools and hospitals have been established under Christian auspices. When the Japanese Government assumed control of the foreign affairs of Korea, they promptly notified the Treaty Powers that the treaty rights of all nations would be respected; and, although the Resident-General has charge of matters relating to foreigners in Korea, the Japanese authorities have never interfered with the activities of the foreign missionaries; on the contrary, all necessary protection has promptly been given to them. A

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report was circulated journalistically in 1907 to the effect that certain missionaries were not in sympathy with the reform measures taken by the Korean Government under the advice of the Resident-General. Thereupon the leading representatives of one of the missionary bodies called on the Resident-General, and gave assurances that missionary activity was confined to religious and educational lines, so far, at least, as their own mission was concerned.

At the time of the abdication of the Emperor, which was followed by riots in Seoul, it was alleged that the Young Men's Christian Association had instigated a movement against the Government, but the General Secretary of that Association in Korea promptly made known its status and explained that it was a non-political society, purely religious and educational. Nevertheless, the fact is notorious that there existed a widespread tendency among the native believers at the time to make unwarranted use of the names of their churches and of the above association for purposes of political agitation. The Korean Government, however, as well as the Residency-General, knew well that United States' citizens engaged in missionary work in Korea had received more than one official warning by their Government to strictly "refrain from any expression of opinion, or from giving advice, concerning the internal management of the country, or from any intermeddling in political questions," and consequently there was never any doubt that American missionaries would appreciate the disposition of their Government and

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devote their activities to religious and educational propaganda alone. The Resident-General more than once made known his favourable appreciation of the religious and educational efforts of the foreign missionaries, believing that they would co-operate with him in promoting the welfare of the Koreans, and he further intimated that he would exercise his influence to protect their work, so long as their activities were confined to religious and educational matters. Finally when, in December, 1907, the Educational Committee of the General Council of Protestant Evangelical Missions approached the Korean Government with a request that the measures undertaken for establishing new public schools should not interfere with work of the missionary schools, the Vice-Minister of Education gave assurance that the Department of Education would render every possible assistance to the educational efforts of the missionaries.

CHAPTER XXVII

*A GLANCE AT THE FUTURE*¹

THE policy of Japan in Korea to-day cannot be fully understood unless it is regarded not as an isolated manifestation, but as a part of a great Imperial scheme. Japan has set out to be a supreme world-Power, and she is rapidly realising her ambition. Yesterday her territory was limited, her people were desperately poor, her army and fleet were thought to be negligible quantities, and her aspirations were pityingly looked upon as the fevered dreams of an undeveloped people. To-day we are in danger of over-estimating the Japanese force and strength as greatly as yesterday our fathers under-estimated it. Japan has found Imperialism a costly, dangerous, and burdensome policy. Her navy and her army have won her world-glory, but she is still struggling and staggering under a load that even yet may be too much for her.

Japanese statesmen realise that they must have fresh territories in which to settle their people. Their own land is crowded and over-populated. Each year sees an increase of from 600,000 to 700,000 people. The 33,000,000 in the Japan of 1872 are now just on 50,000,000, and the rate of increase grows greater each year. The vast majority of these people are

¹ From "The Tragedy of Korea," by F. A. McKenzie.

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still very poor, and Japan to-day has slums in her cities, and problems of child-labour, sweated labour, and starvation, rivalling those of Western nations. Unbacked by great natural resources or by considerable reserves of wealth, her Government is trying to carry through the most gigantic and costly of tasks on a foundation of patriotism and splendid national spirit.

For myself, I cannot but feel the most profound and genuine respect for the loyalty and high racial ambitions that have carried the nation so far. The casual visitor to Japan to-day sees great and glaring faults, but those of us who have lived longer among her people and have gone deeper into her problems wonder not that there are faults, but that development has reached a stage when faults are noted.

Not long since I was on the train from Seoul to Fusan. It was five hours late. It had broken down twice. The locomotive, badly cleaned and badly handled, was scarce able to drag its load, and carriages had been discarded to lighten it.

Some of us, standing in the Korean station — wet, cold, and miserable — were passing caustic remarks about Japanese engine-drivers and the way they muddled and misused their engines. A quiet Scotsman turned on us with a single question. "Do you ever reflect," he asked, "on the wonder that these people can do as well as they do? Think of it," he continued. "The driver was probably two years ago an agricultural labourer in a village, and had never seen an engine. He is running this

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train badly, it is true, but he is running it, and in twelve months' time he will be handling it well. What man of another nation could have done the same?"

The quiet Scotsman had touched the heart of the problem. It is barely thirty years since Japan was still torn in the struggle between feudalism and modernity. The men who to-day are managing cotton mills wore, in their younger manhood, two swords and fantastic armour. Yesterday the kiheitai (irregular soldiers) walked through their districts armed to the teeth, terrorising peaceful farmers; now the same kiheitai work their ten hours a day in the factory for thirty cents. Yesterday the dainty wife sat modestly at home waiting for her lord to return from his political brawls; to-day the same wife is busy over the spinning-jenny in the factory, while her lord is doing his share in shop or warehouse. The thing is a world-miracle, and the longer one contemplates it the greater the miracle appears.

Japan has broken her solemn promises to Korea and has evaded in every way her pledged obligations to maintain the policy of equal opportunities, because she is driven thereto by heavy taxation, by the poverty of her people, and by the necessity of obtaining fresh markets and new lands for settlement. Her people are now the most heavily taxed in proportion to income of any in the world. At the beginning of the Russo-Japanese War a scheme of Imperial taxation was instituted that was thought to reach the final extreme possible to bear as a national war

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burden. This taxation was further increased in 1905, it being understood that the extraordinary special taxes were to be abolished on the last day of the year following the restoration of peace. The land-tax was increased during the war from 120 to 700 per cent., the business tax 150 per cent., the income tax from 80 to 270 per cent., and the sugar duties from 100 to 195 per cent. There were also various other increases. Great national industries, such as tobacco and railways, were nationalised, and Japan succeeded in sending up her ordinary income from \$125,000,000 to over \$200,000,000. At the end of the war the Government announced that under existing circumstances the promised remission of the war tax could not be carried out, so they were kept on to its full extent. Now for the financial year of 1908-9 the Government is compelled to impose a number of taxes over and above the war burden, and despite this is still faced by the probability of a heavy deficit.

So long as Japan could meet the deficiency by foreign loans, the problem of making both ends meet was capable of easy solution. But the most optimistic financier hesitates, at the present time, to suggest a loan either in the European or American markets. For months a careful campaign has been waged to enable a new loan to be floated in Paris, but so far without success. The Manchurian Railway issue was an open failure, although only half of the money really needed was asked for. The Japanese Finance Commissioners who were in Europe

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last summer returned home disappointed. "You can rest assured," one of them was told by a leading financial authority, "that Europe has not another sovereign to lend Japan for increased armaments."

The monetary difficulties have been increased by the disastrous results of commercial speculation in the summer of 1907, when large numbers of banks and institutions failed. The situation is such to-day that the Government must decide on one of two alternatives. It must either reduce expenditure, and thus limit some of its cherished schemes, or it must find excuse for an aggressive campaign against its wealthy neighbour, China. It is this which may explain the Japanese breaches of the Open Door policy. The Government, no doubt, feels that it cannot afford to miss anything that would expand its commerce and improve its national income.

The financial problem has led, in turn, to the labour problem. The inevitable result of high taxation has been to raise the cost of living. It is probably an understatement that the cost of living has doubled in Japan in a few years.

One outcome of this rise in the cost of living has been a series of formidable strikes, particularly among the miners — strikes often accompanied by violence and loss of life. In April, 1907, several hundred miners at the Horolai coal-mine attempted to destroy the mine buildings, fought the police, wounding five of them, and set fire to the mine offices and the go-downs, using dynamite to destroy the buildings.

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At the Ashio copper-mine the men rose, cut down the telegraph lines, extinguished all the lights in the pits, blew up the watch-houses with dynamite, and started a general riot. A bomb was thrown into the watch-house and blew it to atoms. The rioters were thoroughly organised, and had supplies of kerosene and explosives for their work. In the end a heavy body of troops and over 300 police had to come and restore order. In this riot no less than 830 houses were burnt and a number of lives were lost. At the Besshi copper-mines, in June, there were serious disturbances and grave fights, involving a direct loss of \$1,000,000. Offices were set on fire, and damage done which it will take a year to repair. In September some thousands of dyeing operatives went on strike. An epidemic of strikes ran through many industries.

The rapid increase in wages is wounding the new Japanese manufacturers in their most vital point. An attempt was recently made to obtain cheap labour by importing a number of Chinese coolies. The Government quickly intervened, and had the coolies expelled, to the accompaniment of considerable indignity and suffering. Japan has no hesitation in protecting herself from cheaper labour, whatever she may say about America having similar protection for her people.

This labour question raises yet another issue. Japan's success as a manufacturing nation has so far been largely due to the low wages of her toilers. The cotton mills, with an unlimited supply of women

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workers at ten cents a day, and children at a few cents a week, the factories with skilled workmen earning an average wage of sixty *sen* (30c.) a day, are able to turn out goods very cheaply. The Japanese working man is, in the opinion of all competent authorities, not nearly so capable a handler of machinery as is the European. Generally speaking, it takes two Japanese to do the work of one European where much machinery is used. Japanese deftness lies largely in handicrafts.

So long as human material was cheap this did not much matter. But now we have labour appreciating all the time, until in some districts known to me two shillings a day has to be paid. Firms that land goods at Japanese ports are already becoming loud in their complaints of the cost of handling freight.

The Japanese manufacturer thus finds his labour bill rising, while his direct taxation is double or treble what it once was. At the same time a new commercial rival is arising. The factory system is being introduced into parts of China, especially around the Yangtze Valley, and the Chinese are beginning to produce, on a considerable scale, certain lines of goods in competition with Japan.

In China labour is still paid a minimum wage and taxation is low. The Chinese worker is at least equal to the Japanese. What China has lacked up to now has been Government direction, and skilled Government aid in finance, in securing cheap freight, and in finding and keeping customers. Dear labour and high taxation threaten Japan more nearly and

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more seriously than any Armada from foreign lands.

What are the main causes of these crushing national burdens? They are, without doubt, mainly due to the great amount spent on the army and the navy and on commercial subsidies. A great parade was made in some quarters, at the beginning of 1908, because of an announcement that the Japanese Government had resolved to modify its military and naval expenditures for the coming year. The commentators were probably not aware that this so-called modification was merely a slight clipping off in a great scheme of expansion. Japan still spends twice as much on her fighting forces as five years ago. The national policy since the conclusion of the treaty of Portsmouth has been, as it was previously, strongly in favour of the rapid and considerable enlargement of both the fleet and the army. There is, it is true, a party, both in the Cabinet and out of it, that would keep defence expenditure within bounds. But this party is at present only able to exercise a slightly moderating influence.

A comparison of the fighting strength of the nation immediately before the war and to-day will best show this. At the end of 1903 Japan had six good battleships. To-day she has thirteen, and three more are being built. Of these thirteen ships, two — the *Satsuma* and the *Aki* — are of the *Dreadnought* class, and exceed the *Dreadnought* in displacement. The three now building will far surpass in tonnage, horse-power, and armaments the British

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monsters, the *Bellerophon*, *Temeraire*, and the *Superb*. Here is an excellent comparison: —

	Displacement.	I.H.P.	Armaments.
<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="font-size: 2em; margin-right: 5px;">}</div> <div style="margin-left: 5px;"> <i>Bellerophon.</i> <i>Temeraire . . .</i> <i>Superb.</i> </div> </div>	18,600	23,500	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="font-size: 2em; margin-right: 5px;">{</div> <div style="margin-left: 5px;"> 10 12", and 27 small Q.F. </div> </div>
	Displacement.	I.H.P.	Armaments.
Japanese battleships	22,000	26,500	<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="font-size: 2em; margin-right: 5px;">{</div> <div style="margin-left: 5px;"> 12 12", 10 8", and 12 4.7 Q.F. </div> </div>

Before the war Japan had six efficient armoured cruisers. To-day she has twelve, besides four now being built, of which one is near completion. Some of these new armoured cruisers are battleships in all but name. As against fourteen protected cruisers before the war, there are now eighteen. Her nineteen destroyers have risen to fifty-four, and her forty-five torpedo-boats to eighty-five. In addition, she has accumulated a considerable fleet of submarines. There are seven in commission and six now under construction. It is not too much to say that the Japanese Navy is to-day nearly twice as efficient and powerful as it was three months before the outbreak of the Russian War.

The increase in the army has been also considerable. At the close of the Russian campaign the Minister for War, General Terauchi, wanted to resign, and was only induced to continue in office by a promise that his plans for the expansion of the army would be considered as favorably as possible. The war party asked that the army should be in-

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creased from thirteen to twenty-five divisions. This was afterwards reduced by the Minister to twenty-one divisions. The Finance Department declared that such a programme was impossible, for the country could not bear the burden. As a compromise, it was decided early last year to enlarge the army to seventeen divisions, with two further divisions in Korea and Manchuria. Other increases took place, which still further added to the military strength. Thus the time for infantry training was reduced from three years to two. As need hardly be pointed out, this will give the infantry a reserve, in a few years, 50 per cent. greater than before. A thousand men were added to each division.

The Japanese military authorities also seriously set themselves to eradicate the various weaknesses revealed in their organisation during the Russian War. In England a number of open scandals preceded the very effective changes which have been made in its land forces since the Peace of Vereening. Japan managed better. Scandals were suppressed, and all dirty linen was washed in private, but a most careful and relentless inquiry was instituted behind closed doors.

Cavalry had been a conspicuously weak arm of the service during the war. Experts were called in from Austria and other countries, fresh breeding stock was introduced, and the authorities will accomplish the seemingly impossible task of making real horse-masters of some of their countrymen. The Japanese field artillery was hopelessly out-classed by

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the Russian. If Japan were fighting to-day much of her field artillery would be found equal to that of any other Power. Vast sums have been spent to create steel foundries in Japan, in order that the country may be able to supply within its own borders the steel used for war material. This policy has since been carried a step further, and late last year the Japanese finally concluded an agreement with Messrs. Armstrong, and Vickers and Maxim by which Armstrong, Vickers, and the Japanese are to build, in co-partnership, works in Japan itself. These works will have the benefit of the Armstrong and Vickers secrets and designs, and it is expected that a monster arsenal will be created at the Hokaido, doing for Asia what Krupp, Armstrong, Vickers, and Creusot have accomplished for Europe.

Steps have been taken to increase the *esprit* and the military pride of the soldiery. Soon after the war more ornamental dressings were given to military uniforms, and the Japanese soldier now, in his red and gold-trimmed dress, looks very different from the shapeless and slouching yokel who formerly excited the derision of superficial European onlookers. There is nothing extraordinary in this. Japan is only following the line taken by many great conquering nations before, and those who would follow the reasons for her action need but study Napoleonic history. Her army and navy are at once her strength and danger. Her soldiers, strong, successful, and determined, look with some scorn on the quiet and somewhat sober statesmen who keep them in check.

A GLANCE AT THE FUTURE

They are working out, under new conditions, the same conclusions that have always made the Samurai the strength of, and potentially the most dangerous class in, Japan.

Happily for the world, while the military clans are strong, they are not yet omnipotent. There is a school of statesmen, not perhaps a growing school, that sees the real hope of Japan's future in peaceful expansion. A generation ago, Okubo, leader of those who overthrew the Shogunate, died under the hands of an assassin for loyalty to his principles. Twelve years ago Ito kept his countrymen in check when they were furious to avenge the insults that were put upon them by Russia. The school of Okubo and Ito is not yet dead. Ito, it is true, is laughed at by many of the younger men, who declare that while his ways were good enough for their fathers, they have entered into a wider inheritance, and will prove themselves worthy of it. The future of Japan, the future of the East, and, to some extent, the future of the world, lies in the answer to the question whether the militarists or the party of peaceful expansion gain the upper hand in the immediate future. If the one, then we shall have harsher rule in Korea, steadily increasing aggression in Manchuria, growing interference with China, and, in the end, a Titanic conflict, the end of which none can see. Under the others Japan will enter into an inheritance wider, more glorious, and more assured than any Asiatic power has attained for many centuries. Given peace and fair dealing, her commerce cannot

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fail to expand by leaps and bounds. Once her merchants have learnt to purge themselves of their inherited trickery, once they have discovered that bogus trade-marks, poor substitutes, and smartness do not build up permanent connections, their future is certain. Japan has it in her yet to be, not the Mistress of the East, reigning, sword in hand, over subject races — for that she can never permanently be — but the bringer of peace to, and the teacher of, the East. Will she choose the nobler end?

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